and *outre*. I have an idea that the dramatiſts of the laſt age, like Hogarth, choſe the former. The author of whom we are ſpeaking (Foote) extended his views; and, although he gave a likeneſs, diſtorted the features, and rendered the figure extravagantly ridiculous. Of the *outre* mode of writing, we have unhappily upon our own ſtage at this time too many inſtances, which, if not actually imported, are certainly as eminent for dulneſs as a German *comedy*.

In the modern routine of theatrical amuſements, we are frequently treated with a tragedy *after* a farce; a mode which, without profeſſing to admire it, I find it convenient in this inſtance to purſue: therefore I ſhall conſider that ſpecies of the drama in the age to which I have alluded.

I ſhall paſs over the tragedy of Douglas for two reaſons; the one, becauſe I think its date was antecendent and the other, becauſe my feeble obſervations could add nothing to the high reputation which it has ſo deſervedly attained.

To deſcend therefore, the tragedy of the third quarter of this century had, like the comedy, no diſtinguiſhing feature. The rapid fire of Otway ſeemed to languiſh into a lambent flame in Jephſon's Braganza; a play in which, although the fable laboured under (one would think) the incurable diſadvantage of a deficiency of incident, and ſeveral wide chaſms in dramatic action, yet in the concluſion affords an affecting ſpecimen of terror, naturally enough ariſing from the progreſs of the ſcene. We have not, perhaps, an inſtance of any modern performance, in which the force and effect of language were ſo ſtrongly exhibited: it would be too ſevere a ſtrictare upon the piece to ſay that "declamation roared, while paſſion ſlept;" but it is certain that in many ſcenes, where the action was languid, the attention was kept alive by the elegance and animation of the diction.

The Cyrus and Timanthes of Hoole made in this period a reſpectable figure; his third tragedy, Cleonice, ſeemed as much inferior to his former productions as the Law of Lombardy to Braganza.

The elegant language of Dr Franklin's Matilda was much admired; and as the ſtory is not one in which hiſtoric truth could not be ſo ſtrangely, ſo unjuſtifiably violated, as in his Earl of Warwick, it met with deſerved applauſe.

It has always appeared to me, that there is in the ſtory of The Grecian Daughter; a ſtory which has been recorded in all languages, and repreſented in all countries, both in painting, ſculpture, and on the ſtage; the ſtrongeſt inſtance of female pity which it is poſſible for the human mind to conceive. It is a tale calculated to ſpeak to the feelings, however ſimple and unadorned the diction in which it is recited; to fly directly to the heart, through the medium of even the moſt inartificial declamation. What effect muſt it then have had, when adorned with all the pomp of decoration; when recited with all the energy of enthuſiaſtic effort, and clothed in all the elegance of harmonious and elevated language? Its effect, I anſwer, muſt have been felt; it is impoſſible to deſcribe it.

Maſon's Caractacus, and Elfrida, written upon the model of the Greek tragedy, next attract our attention. Both were performed at Covent Garden, under the direction of the author, and not without applauſe. But whether that applauſe was derived from that claſſical taſte of the audience in poetry, or *beauty*, it is impoſſible for me to decide. It has been allowed by connoiſſeurs, that Mrs Hartley (Elfrida), with a face much more exquiſitely lovely, had a figure quite as elegant as the Venus de Medicis.

Semiramis, by Aſcough, tranſlated from the Semiramis of Voltaire, was, I think, only remarkable for its Epilogue, and the ridicule excited by

by the appearance of the Ghoſt of Ninus.

The rigid virtue of Regulus was well pourtrayed in Miſs H. More's tragedy of The Inflexible Captive, acted at Bath; the language of which although nervous and elegant, certainly wanted thoſe finer touches, thoſe latent yet forcible appeals to the heart, which excite the compaſſionate feelings, and render the tragedies of Otway, Lee, and Dryden, ſo irreſiſtibly affecting. Percy, although it had the advantage of being a domeſtic tale, ſeemed but little to intereſt the audience; a fault which ſhould rather be aſcribed to the actors than to the author, for ſurely never was a piece ſo marred in repreſentation. Both theſe dramas diſplay conſiderable genius; but as their fair author has ſince employed her pen to ſo much better a purpoſe, and adopted a mode of writing in which ſhe is unrivalled, ſhe would hardly conſider any praiſe beſtowed upon theſe pieces as a compliment.

The few deſultory remarks upon the drama of the middle and third ages of this century, which formed the ſubſtance of the laſt ſpeculation, brings me to a period when the comparatively ſmall portion of genius, which had with erratic gleams occaſionally irradiated and enlivened the ſtage, ſeems to have ſuffered a total eclipſe.

In this fourth age, which with reſpect to the frivolouſneſs of our dramatic writers, and the poverty of our dramatic genius, may, as I have hinted, be juſtly termed dark, either the careleſsneſs of the Managers or the imbecility of the Authors has ſpread a gloom over our ſtage, unknown to it even in its firſt rude efforts; when the *children*, as they were termed, recited the ignorant effuſions of Monaſtiſm. We have in this period ſeen characters introduced, and even applauded, that had not half the wit and humour of the *Vice* of the old Myſteries, the *Iniquity* of the Moralities, or their legitimate offspring and ſucceſſor Punch, are known to have poſſeſſed. The plays of Heywood, ſuch as the four pieces, John and Tib his Wife, &c. Gammar Gurton's Needle, Blurt Mr Conſtable, the Flier, Green's Tu Quoque, &c. ſeem to be brilliant emanations of genius, when compared to our modern comedies. The evening of this century ſeems like the evening of the day, with reſpect to the dulneſs of our theatres; and perhaps, generally ſpeaking, it is impoſſible, in the whole *materia medica* to find a ſtronger ſtimulus to repoſe than ſome of the immenſe doſes which they nocturnally exhibit. In fact, the Authors, or rather the *Compoſers*, ſeem to have fabricated their dramas rather for the actors than the audience, and to have depended upon them to give force to their execrable puns, to point their equivoque, and to play their *ſtage* tricks, until even Folly cries forbear! Yet, however *low* theſe traps to catch applauſe may be held by the judicious few, it appears, from the run of ſome late pieces, that audiences could be pleaſed at a ſtill lower rate; and that they have indulged actors in their buffoonery, nay even *encouraged* authors to *relax* from every attempt at wit or humour, however abortive and illegitimate; and, ſo far from expecting any thing like rational amuſement, they neither call upon them for thoſe obſolete dramatic appendages, nor for plot, language, connection, nor even common ſenſe.

We have, Mr Editor, lived to ſee the prediction of your predeceſſor, the Spectator, fulfilled: *ſuffering* has paſſed for acting; and a fall, a beating, or even the extinguiſhing a candle, have been deemed *good jeſts*, have excited the hearty horſe laugh of *genuine ſimplicity*, and by their frequent repetition ſupported a ſtupid play, in ſpight of the ſlimſineſs of the

ſtory (for I will not term it *plot*), and the coarſeneſs of the dramatic materials.

The uſe of the ſcreen, cloſet, ladder of ropes, and maſk, is ours by preſcription; and I conſider them as heir looms, as a valuable legacy (when properly applied), deſcending to us from our dramatic anceſtors. Theſe valuable appendages, I have been long uſed to deem inanimate actors, and revere them as hereditary aſſiſtants to wit and humour; and therefore am diſpoſed to treat them with great indulgence, in whatſoever ſituation I happen to find them: nor do I entirely blame our modern poets, for ſummoning to their aſſiſtance the aid of pantomimic trick, dumb ſhew, and taſteleſs ſplendour; becauſe it indicates that they endeavour to ſupply the want of genius by induſtry, and therefore contrive to eke out their coarſe and ill-manufactured webs with broad painted borders, with tinſel fringes, foil, and other glittering appendages. This may apply to the latter: with reſpect to the former, pantomime and dumb ſhew are certainly the moſt valuable part of many modern dramas; the authors of which have unqueſtionably ſpoken better to the eye than to the ear. Dumb ſhew in the hiſtrionic art is like *ſtill life* in the graphic; and, although the loweſt, is not always the leaſt pleaſing effort of genius. In fact, at preſent, the ſcene-painter, the carpenter, and even the taylor, are much more uſeful perſons, and contribute more to the ſucceſs of the drama than the poet. Let but the machinery be well conſtructed, the ſcenery beautiful, the paraphernalia brilliant, and its diſpoſition, owing to the taſte of the wearer, faſcinating, we care little for the writing; and a ſtupid piece, like a ſtupid fellow, is certain of obtaining general applauſe, if *properly* introduced and well dreſſed.

As I have juſt hinted that I have no very high idea of the claſſical taſte of the directors of our theatres, I acquit them of the *crime* of having, either in their conſtruction or ſcenic decoration, borrowed any thing from the ancients; I rather think that their ſize and the taſte diſplayed within, are derived from the ſame ſource as their dramas, and are a cloſe imitation of thoſe upon the continent; the opera-houſe of Vienna, for inſtance; where it is ſaid, a real bridge is ſometimes thrown over a real river, where Imperial troops enter on either ſide, and a mock fight, by real ſoldiers, cavalry and infantry, is performed before a delighted audience; or that of Turin, which is alſo ſtated to be of an immenſe ſize, and ſo contrived that the back of the ſtage can be opened, and a large paved court added to it †. A gentle acclivity is raiſed on the ſides, and paſs communicating with the courts opened, through which may be introduced triumphal cars, proceſſions, and indeed half his Sardinian Majeſty's troops, ſhould the buſineſs of the drama require them ‡.

The tranſlations of theſe immortal works, which have for our edification

† I remember, in the year 1761, Mr Garrick, who anticipated the Coronation at Covent Garden, as far as he could, availed himſelf of this ingenious contrivance. On the exhibition of this ſpectacle, the back of Drury Lane ſtage was thrown open, and a ſmall court adjoining, called Harlequin court diſplayed, with a large bonfire burning in the middle of it. Blackguards, men, women, girls, and boys, were engaged to huzza, who performed their parts to a miracle. The audience, as always happens when they are preſented with the genuine effuſions of nature, were exceedingly delighted; but alas! this agreeable entertainment was literally *extinguiſhed* by the Gothic dulneſs of the Directors of the Fire Offices, who, becauſe ſome of the houſes in the vicinity happened to be a little ſcorched, came to the barbarous reſolution not to ſuffer *property* to be ſacrificed to *amuſement*; and, I believe, intimated to the Manager, that if he perſiſted in his inflamatory propenſity, his *policy* would be forfeited.

‡ "I think the play which I ſaw was meant to be a tragedy, as Harlequin kills ſeveral people upon the ſtage; yet it cannot be deemed an epic poem, for to the

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happily been represented upon our stage, decorated with scenery glaring though coarse as their language, and adorned with dresses glittering though slimsy as their sentiments, have not in my opinion had half the attention paid them which their intrinsic merit deserves. Had I the direction of the theatres, the diamond mountains, the palaces of Delhi, the interior of the Seraglio, should be explored for splendour; I would travel from the Alps to Caucasus in quest of sublime scenery, ransack the Persian Tales and the Arabian Nights for palaces, and the whole Continent, from the Strait of Messina to the Texel, for castles. I would have such armies, navies, giants, dwarfs, ghosts, fairies, fiends, and demons, as, to quote Mr Bays, "should elevate and surprise" the whole nation; and send Pizarro to *search for gold* on the other side of the Atlantic, for his *poverty* (I mean poverty of genius) should no longer be tolerated in this country.

In this arrangement, it will be thought that I have glanced my eye toward that excellent paper of Addison (Spectator 32, Vol. I.), in which a projector proposes, in order to save the time of those persons who were lovers of spectacles, to compress all the public shews then in fashion into one opera, and bring them upon the stage. The last battle betwixt Alexander and Porus he mentions with rapture, as being, with the addition of dromedaries and elephants, likely to form a distinguished part of the performance: but, had he lived in these days of scenic splendour unconnected with sense, he would have found that we have gone far, very far indeed, beyond what his vivid imagination and elegant taste induced him to hold up to the public as objects of ridicule. He would have found theatres much better adapted to the combination of all the variety of exhibitions, which this overgrown metropolis affords: he would have caught us admiring a quick succession of brilliant scenery, without considering for what purpose it was drawn forth; or taking a part in battles, without having a desire of conquest; or accessary to murder, rapes, and other enormities, without being stimulated by vengeance, lust, or any other passion, or awed by the dread of legal punishment: he would have beheld us terrified with ghosts, and haunted with furies, who were raised by, and made subservient to the barbaric taste of the author, for the introduction of stupid splendour and Gothic glare; but from whose success or defeat, escape or punishment, appearance or disappearance, nothing interesting to the end that poets should have in view—the promotion of virtue and morality—can be collected.

best of my knowledge, there was neither beginning, middle, nor end. This piece of confusion (shorter than Pizarro) commenced at seven, and lasted until eleven o'clock. When the attention of the auditors began to flag, several pistols were fired to awake their dormant faculties, which indeed to me seemed a very ingenious contrivance. There were in this drama, ladies, magicians, devils, constables, robbers, princes, ambassadors, and troops of wooden horses."—Letters from Italy, by an English Woman, 1770, p. 71.

BARNAVELT.

AFTER the death of this virtuous and intrepid Grand Pensionary of Holland, who suffered rather for reasons of policy, than for any thing else, his children entered into a conspiracy against the Stadtholder, were detected, and condemned to death. Their mother waited upon the Stadtholder to beg their lives. He told her, he was surprised that she, who had never begged the life of her husband, should now request the lives of her sons. "My lord," replied she, "I did not ask the remission of the sentence of my husband, because I knew that he was innocent; but I ask the lives of my sons, because I am well assured of their guilt."

AN INQUIRY CONCERNING THE WEIGHT ASCRIBED TO HEAT.

By Benjamin Count of Rumford, F. R. S. M. R. I. A. &c.

Read before the Royal Society, May 2, 1799.

THE various experiments which have hitherto been made with a view to determine the queſtion ſo long agitated, relative to the weight which has been ſuppoſed to be gained, or to be loſt, by bodies upon their being heated, are of a nature ſo very delicate, and are liable to ſo many errors, not only on account of the imperfections of the inſtruments made uſe of, but alſo, of thoſe, much more difficult to appreciate, ariſing from the vertical currents in the atmoſphere, cauſed by the hot or the cold body which is placed in the balance, that it is not at all ſurpriſing that opinions have been ſo much divided, relative to a fact ſo very difficult to aſcertain.

It is a conſiderable time ſince I firſt began to meditate upon this ſubject, and I have made many experiments with a view to its inveſtigation; and, in theſe experiments, I have taken all thoſe precautions to avoid errors, which a knowledge of the various ſources of them, and an earneſt deſire to determine a fact which I conceived to be of importance to be known, could inſpire; but, though all my reſearches tended to convince me more and more, that *a body acquires no additional weight upon being heated*, or rather, that heat has no effect whatever upon the weights of bodies, I have been ſo ſenſible of the delicacy of the inquiry, that I was for a long time afraid to form a decided opinion upon the ſubject.

Being much ſtruck with the experiments recorded in the Tranſactions of the Royal Society, vol. LXXV, made by Dr Fordyce, upon the weight ſaid to be acquired by water upon being frozen; and being poſſeſſed of an excellent balance, belonging to his moſt ſerene highneſs the Elector Palatine Duke of Bavaria; early in the beginning of the winter of the year 1787—as ſoon as the cold was ſufficiently intenſe for my purpoſe—I ſet about to repeat thoſe experiments, in order to convince myſelf whether the very extraordinary fact related, might be depended on; and, with a view to removing, as far as was in my power, every ſource of error and deception, I proceeded in the following manner.

Having provided a number of glaſs bottles, of the form and ſize of what in England is called a Florence flaſk—blown as thin as poſſible—and of the ſame ſhape and dimenſions, I choſe out from among them two, which, after uſing every method I could imagine of comparing them together, appeared to be ſo much alike as hardly to be diſtinguiſhed.

Into one of theſe bottles, which I ſhall call A, I put 4107,86 grains troy of pure diſtilled water, which filled it about half full; and into the other, B, I put an equal weight of weak ſpirit of wine; and ſealing both the bottles hermetically, and waſhing them, and wiping them perfectly clean and dry on the outſide, I ſuſpended them to the arms of the balance, and placed the balance in a large room, which for ſome weeks had been regularly heated every day by a German ſtove, and in which the air was kept up to the temperature of 61 of Fahrenheit's thermometer, with very little variation. Having ſuffered the bottles, with their contents, to remain in this ſituation till I conceived they muſt have acquired the temperature of the circumambient air, I wiped them afreſh, with a very clean dry cambric handkerchief, and brought them into the moſt exact equilibrium poſſible, by attaching a ſmall piece of very

very fine ſilver wire to the arm of the balance to which the bottle which was the lighteſt was ſuſpended.

Having ſuffered the apparatus to remain in this ſituation about twelve hours longer, and finding no alteration in the relative weights of the bottles—they continuing all this time to be in the moſt perfect equilibrium—I now removed them into a large uninhabited room, fronting the north, in which the air, which was very quiet, was at the temperature of 29, F; the air without doors being at the ſame time at 27; and, going out of the room, and locking the door after me, I ſuffered the bottles to remain forty-eight hours, undiſturbed, in this cold ſituation, attached to the arms of the balance as before.

At the expiration of that time I entered the room—uſing the utmoſt caution not to diſturb the balance—when, to my great ſurpriſe, I found that the bottle A very ſenſibly preponderated.

The water which this bottle contained was completely frozen into one ſolid body of ice; but the ſpirit of wine, in the bottle B, ſhowed no ſigns of freezing.

I now very cautiouſly reſtored the equilibrium, by adding ſmall pieces of the very fine wire of which gold lace is made, to the arm of the balance to which the bottle B was ſuſpended, when I found that the bottle A had augmented its weight by $\frac{1}{35057}$ part of its whole weight at the beginning of the experiment; the weight of the bottle with its contents having been 4811,23 grains troy, (the bottle weighing 703,37 grains, and the water 4107,86 grains) and it requiring now $\frac{137}{4811}$ parts of a grain, added to the oppoſite arm of the balance, to counterbalance it.

Having had occaſion juſt at this time to write to my friend, Sir Charles Blagden, upon another ſubject, I added a poſtſcript to my letter, giving him a ſhort account of this experiment, and telling him how "*very contrary to my expectation*" the reſult of it had turned out; but I ſoon after found that I had been too haſty in my communication. Sir Charles, in his anſwer to my letter, expreſſed doubts reſpecting the fact; but, before his letter had reached me, I had learned from my own experience, how very dangerous it is, in philoſophical inveſtigations, to draw concluſions from ſingle experiments.

Having removed the balance, with the two bottles attached to it, from the cold into the warm room, (which ſtill remained at the temperature of 61) the ice into the bottle A gradually thawed; and, being at length totally reduced to water, and this water having acquired the temperature of the ſurrounding air, the two bottles, after being wiped perfectly clean and dry, were found to weigh as at the beginning of the experiment, before the water was frozen.

This experiment being repeated, gave nearly the ſame reſult, the water appearing, when frozen, to be heavier than in its fluid ſtate; but ſome irregularity in the manner in which the water loſt the additional weight which it had appeared to acquire upon being frozen, when it was afterwards thawed, as alſo a ſenſible difference in the quantities of weight apparently acquired in the different experiments, led me to ſuſpect, that the experiment could not be depended on for deciding the fact in queſtion: I therefore ſet about to repeat it, with ſome variations and improvements: but, before I give an account of my further inveſtigations relative to this ſubject, it may not be amiſs to mention the method I purſued for diſcovering whether the appearances mentioned in the foregoing experiments might not ariſe from the imperfections of my balance; and it may likewiſe be proper to give an account, in this place, of an intermediate experiment which I made, with a view to diſ-

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cover, by a ſhorter route, and in a manner leſs exceptionable than that abovementioned, whether bodies actually loſe, or acquire, any weight, upon acquiring any additional quantity of latent heat.

My ſuſpicions reſpecting the accuracy of the balance aroſe from a knowledge—which I acquired from the maker of it—of the manner in which it was conſtructed.

The three principal points of the balance having been determined, as nearly as poſſible, by meaſurement, the axes of motion were firmly fixed in their places, in a right line, and the beam being afterward finiſhed, and its two arms brought to be in equilibrio, the balance was proved by ſuſpending weights, which before were known to be exactly equal, to the ends of its arms.

If with theſe weights the balance remained in equilibrio, it was conſidered as a proof that the beam was juſt; but, if one arm was found to preponderate, the other was gradually lengthened, by beating it upon an anvil, until the difference of the lengths of the arms was reduced to nothing, or until equal weights, ſuſpended to the two arms, remained in equilibrio; care being taken, before each trial, to bring the two ends of the beam to be in equilibrio, by reducing, with the file, the arm which had been lengthened.

Though, in this method of conſtructing balances, the moſt perfect equality in the lengths of the arms may be obtained, conſequently the greateſt poſſible accuracy, when uſed at a time when the temperature of the air is the ſame as when the balance was made, yet as it may happen that in order to bring the arms of the balance to be of the ſame length, one of them may be much more hammered than the other, I ſuſpected it might be poſſible that the texture of the metal forming the two arms might be rendered ſo far different, by this operation, as to occaſion a difference in their expanſions with heat and that this difference might occaſion a ſenſible error in the balance, when, being charged with a great weight, it ſhould be expoſed to a conſiderable change of temperature.

To determine whether the apparent augmentation of weight, in the experiments above related, aroſe in any degree from this cauſe, I had only to repeat the experiment, cauſing the two bottles A and B to change places upon the arms of the balance; but, as I had already found a ſenſible difference in the reſults of different repetitions of the ſame experiment, made as nearly as poſſible under the ſame circumſtances, and as it was above all things of importance to aſcertain the accuracy of my balance, I preferred making a particular experiment for that purpoſe.

My firſt idea was, to ſuſpend to the arms of the balance, by very fine wires, two equal globes of glaſs, filled with mercury, and, ſuffering them to remain in my room till they ſhould have acquired the known temperature of the air in it, to have removed them afterward into the cold, and to have ſeen if they ſtill remained in equilibrio, under ſuch difference of temperature; but, conſidering the obſtinacy with which moiſture adheres to the ſurface of glaſs, and being afraid that, ſomehow or other, notwithſtanding all my precautions one of the globes might acquire or retain more of it than the other, and that by that means its apparent weight might be increaſed; and having found by a former experiment, of which I have already had the honour of communicating an account to the Royal Society, that the gilt ſurfaces of metals do not attract moiſture, inſtead of the glaſs globes filled with mercury, I made uſe of two equal ſolid globes of braſs, well gilt and burniſhed, which I ſuſpended to the arms of the balance, by fine gold wires.

Theſe globes, which weighed 4975 grains each, being wiped perfectly clean, and having acquired the temperature (61°) of my room, in which they

they were expoſed more than twenty-four hours, were brought into the moſt ſcrupulous equilibrium, and were then removed, attached to the arms of the balance, into a room in which the air was at the temperature of 26°, where they were left all night.

The reſult of this trial furniſhed the moſt ſatisfactory proof of the accuracy of the balance; for, upon entering the room, I found the equilibrium as perfect as at the beginning of the experiment.

Having thus removed my doubts reſpecting the accuracy of my balance, I now reſumed my inveſtigations relative to the augmentation of weight which fluids have been ſaid to acquire upon being congealed.

In the experiments which I had made, I had, as I then imagined, guarded as much as poſſible againſt every ſource of error and deception. The bottles being of the ſame ſize, neither any occaſional alteration in the preſſure of the atmoſphere during the experiment, nor the neceſſary and unavoidable difference in the denſities of the air in the hot and in the cold rooms in which they were weighed, could affect their apparent weights; and their ſhapes and their quantities of ſurface being the ſame, and as they remained for ſuch a conſiderable length of time in the heat in cold to which they were expoſed, I flattered myſelf that the quantities of moiſture remaining attached to their ſurfaces, could not be ſo different as ſenſibly to affect the reſults of the experiments.—But, in regard to this laſt circumſtance, I afterward found reaſon to conclude that my opinion was erroneous.

Admitting the fact ſtated by Dr Fordyce—(and which my experiments had hitherto rather tended to corroborate than to contradict)—I could not conceive any other cauſe for the augmentation of the apparent weight of water on its being frozen, than the loſs of ſo great a proportion of its latent heat as that fluid is known to evolve when it congeals; and I concluded, that if the loſs of latent heat added to the weight of one body, it muſt of neceſſity produce the ſame effect on another, and conſequently, that the augmentation of the quantity of latent heat muſt,—in all bodies,—and in all caſes,—diminiſh their apparent weights.

To determine whether this is actually the caſe or not, I made the following experiment.

Having provided two bottles, as nearly alike as poſſible, and in all reſpects ſimilar to thoſe made uſe of in the experiments above mentioned, into one of them I put 4012,46 grains of water, and into the other an equal weight of mercury; and, ſealing them hermetically, and ſuſpending them to the arms of the balance, I ſuffered them to acquire the temperature of my room, 61°; then, bringing them into a perfect equilibrium with each other, I removed them into a room in which the air was at the temperature of 35°, where they remained twenty-four hours.—But there was not the leaſt appearance of either of them acquiring, or loſing, any weight.

Here it is very certain, that the quantity of heat loſt by the water, muſt have been very conſiderably greater than that loſt by the mercury; the ſpecific quantities of latent heat in water and in mercury, having been determined to be to each other as 1000 to 33: but this difference in the quantities of heat loſt, produced no ſenſible difference on the weights of the fluids in queſtion.

Had any difference of weight really exiſted, had it been no more than *one millionth* part of the weight of either of the fluids, I ſhould certainly have diſcovered it;—and, had it amounted to ſo much as $\frac{1}{4000}$ part of that weight, I ſhould have been able to have meaſured it; ſo ſenſible, and ſo very accurate, is the balance which I uſed in theſe experiments.

I was now much confirmed in my ſuſpicions,

ſuſpicions, that the apparent augmentation of the weight of the water upon its being frozen, in the experiments before related, aroſe from ſome accidental cauſe; but I was not able to conceive what that cauſe could poſſibly be,—unleſs it were, either a greater quantity of moiſture attached to the external ſurface of the bottle which contained the water, than to the ſurface of that containing the ſpirits of wine,—or ſome vertical current or currents of air, cauſed by the bottles or one of them not being exactly of the temperature of the ſurrounding atmoſphere.

Though I have foreſeen, and, as I thought, guarded ſufficiently againſt theſe accidents,—by making uſe of bottles of the ſame ſize and form,—and which were blown of the ſame kind of glaſs,—and at the ſame time, and by ſuffering the bottles, in the experiments, to remain for ſo conſiderable a length of time expoſed to the different degrees of heat and of cold, which alternately they were made to acquire; yet, as I did not know the relative conducting powers of ice and of ſpirit of wine with reſpect to heat; or, in other words,—the degrees of facility or difficulty with which they acquire the temperature of the medium in which they are expoſed;—or the time taken up in that operation; and, conſequently, was not *abſolutely certain* as to the equality of the temperatures of the contents of the bottles at the time when their weights were compared, I determined now to repeat the experiments, with ſuch variations as ſhould put the matter in queſtion out of all doubt.

I was the more anxious to aſſure myſelf of the real temperatures of the bottles and of their contents, as any difference in their temperatures might vitiate the experiment, not only by cauſing unequal currents in the air, but alſo, by cauſing at the ſame time, a greater or leſs quantity of moiſture to remain attached to the glaſs.

To remedy theſe evils, and alſo to render the experiment more ſtriking and ſatisfactory in other reſpects, I proceeded in the following manner:

Having provided three bottles, A, B, and C, as nearly alike as poſſible, and reſembling in all reſpects thoſe already deſcribed; into the firſt, A, I put 4214,28 grains of water, and a ſmall thermometer, made on purpoſe for the experiment, and ſuſpended in the bottle in ſuch a manner that its bulb remained in the middle of the maſs of water; into the ſecond bottle, B, I put a like weight of ſpirit of wine, with a like thermometer; and into the bottle C, I put an equal weight of mercury.

Theſe bottles, being all hermetically ſealed, were placed in a large room,—in a corner far removed from the doors and windows, and where the air appeared to be perfectly quiet; and, being ſuffered to remain in this ſituation more than twenty-four hours, the heat of the room (61°) being kept up all that time with as little variation as poſſible, and the contents of the bottles A and B appearing, by their incloſed thermometers, to be exactly at the ſame temperature, the bottles were all wiped with a very clean dry cambric handkerchief; and, being afterward ſuffered to remain expoſed to the free air of the room a couple of hours longer, in order that any inequalities in the quantities of heat—or of the moiſture attached to their ſurfaces,—which might have been occaſioned by the wiping, might be corrected by the operation of the atmoſphere by which they were ſurrounded, they were all weighed, and were brought into the moſt exact equilibrium with each other, by means of ſmall pieces of very fine ſilver wire, attached to the necks of thoſe of the bottles which were the lighteſt.

This being done, the bottles were all removed into a room in which the air was at 30°, where they were ſuffered to remain, perfectly at reſt and undiſturbed, forty-eight hours; the

bottles

bottles A and B being ſuſpended to the arms of the balance, and the bottle C ſuſpended, at an equal height, to the arm of a ſtand conſtructed for that purpoſe, and placed as near the balance as poſſible, and a very ſenſible thermometer ſuſpended by the ſide of it.

At the end of forty-eight hours.—during which time the apparatus was left in this ſituation,—I entered the room, opening the door very gently, for fear of diſturbing the balance; when I had the pleaſure to find the three thermometers,—viz. that in the bottle A, (which was now incloſed in a ſolid cake of ice)—that in the bottle B,—and that ſuſpended in the open air of the room, all ſtanding at the ſame point, 29° F, and the bottles A and B *remaining in the moſt perfect equilibrium.*

To aſſure myſelf that the play of the balance was free, I now approached it very gently, and cauſed it to vibrate; and I had the ſatisfaction to find,—not only that it moved with the utmoſt freedom,—but alſo,—when its vibration ceaſed,—that it reſted preciſely at the point from which it had ſet out.

I now removed the bottle B from the balance, and put the bottle C in its place; and I found that *that* likewiſe remained of the ſame apparent weight as at the beginning of the experiment, being in the ſame perfect equilibrium with the bottle A as at firſt.

I afterward removed the whole apparatus into a warm room, and, cauſing the ice in the bottle A to thaw, and ſuffering the three bottles to remain till they and their contents had acquired the exact temperature of the ſurrounding air, I wiped them very clean, and, comparing them together, I found their weights remained unaltered.

This experiment I afterward repeated ſeveral times, and always with preciſely the ſame reſult; the water, *in no inſtance*, appearing to gain, or to loſe, the leaſt weight, upon being frozen, or upon being thawed; neither were the relative weights of the fluids in either of the other bottles in the leaſt changed, by the various degrees of heat, and of cold, to which they were expoſed.

If the bottles were weighed at a time when their contents were not *preciſely of the ſame temperature*, they would frequently appear to have gained, or to have loſt, ſomething of their weights;—but this doubtleſs aroſe from the vertical currents which they cauſed in the atmoſphere, upon being heated or cooled in it; or to unequal quantities of moiſture attached to the ſurfaces of the bottles;—or to both theſe cauſes operating together.

As I knew that the conducting power of mercury, with reſpect to heat, was conſiderably greater than either that of water, or that of ſpirit of wine, while its capacity for receiving heat is much leſs than that of either of them, I did not think it neceſſary to incloſe a thermometer in the bottle C, which contained the mercury; for it was evident, that when the contents of the other two bottles ſhould appear, by their thermometers, to have arrived at the temperature of the medium in which they were expoſed, the contents of the bottle C could not fail to have acquired it alſo, and even to have arrived at it before them; for, the time taken up in the heating or in the cooling of any body, is, *cæteris paribus*, as the capacity of the body to receive and retain heat, *directly*, and as its conducting power, *inverſely*.

The bottles were ſuſpended to the balance by ſilver wires, about two inches long, with hooks at the ends of them; and, in removing and changing the bottles, I took care not to touch the glaſs. I likewiſe avoided, upon all occaſions, and particularly in the cold room, coming near the balance with my breath, or touching it, or

or any part of the apparatus, with my naked hands.

Having determined that water does not acquire or loſe any weight, upon being changed from a ſtate of *fluidity*, to that of *ice* and *vice verſa*, I ſhall now take my final leave of a ſubject which has long occupied me, and which has coſt me much pains and trouble; being fully convinced, (from the reſults of the above-mentioned experiments) that if heat be in fact a *ſubſtance*, or matter,—a fluid *ſui generis*, as has been ſuppoſed,—which, paſſing from one body to another, and being accumulated, is the immediate cauſe of the phenomena we obſerve in heated bodies, (of which, however, I cannot help entertaining doubts) it muſt be ſomething ſo infinitely rare, even in its moſt condenſed ſtate, as to baffle all our attempts to diſcover its gravity. And, if the opinion which has been adopted by many of our ableſt philoſophers, that heat is nothing more than an inteſtine vibratory motion of the conſtituent parts of heated bodies, ſhould be well founded, it is clear that the weights of bodies can in no wiſe be affected by ſuch motion.

It is, no doubt, upon the ſuppoſition that heat is a ſubſtance diſtinct from the heated body, and which is accumulated in it, that all the experiments which have been undertaken, with a view to determine the weight which bodies have been ſuppoſed to gain or to loſe, upon being heated or cooled, have been made; and, upon this ſuppoſition (but without, however, adopting it entirely, as I do not conceive it to be ſufficiently proved) all my reſearches have been directed.

The experiments with *water*, and with *ice*, were made in a manner which I take to be perfectly unexceptionable; —in which no foreign cauſe whatever could affect the reſults of them;—and the quantity of heat which water is known to part with, upon being frozen, is ſo conſiderable, that if this loſs has no effect upon its apparent weight, it may be preſumed that we ſhall never be able to contrive an experiment by which we can render the weight of heat ſenſible.

Water, upon being frozen, has been found to loſe a quantity of heat amounting to 140 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer; or,—which is the ſame thing the heat which a given quantity of water, previouſly cooled to the temperature of freezing, actually loſes, upon being changed to ice, if it were to be imbibed and retained by an equal quantity of water, at the given temperature, (that of freezing) would heat it 140 degrees, or would raiſe it to the temperature of 162 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, which is only 60° ſhort of that of boiling water; conſequently, any given quantity of water, at the temperature of freezing, upon being actually frozen, loſes almoſt as much heat as, added to it, would be ſufficient to make it boil.

It is clear, therefore, that the difference in the quantities of heat contained by the water in its fluid ſtate, and heated to the temperature of 61° F, and by the ice, in the experiments before mentioned, was *at leaſt* nearly equal to that between water in a ſtate of boiling, and the ſame at the temperature of freezing.

But this quantity of heat will appear much more conſiderable, when we conſider the great capacity of water to contain heat, and the great apparent effect which the heat that water loſes upon being frozen would produce, were it to be imbibed by, or communicated to, any body whoſe power of receiving and retaining heat is much leſs.

The capacity of water to receive and retain heat,—or what has been called its ſpecific quantity of latent heat,—has been found to be to that of gold as 1000 to 50,—or as 20 to 1; conſequently, the heat which any given quantity of water loſes upon being frozen,—were it to be communicated to an equal weight of gold, at the

the temperature of freezing, the gold, inſtead of being heated 162 degrees, would be heated 2800 degrees, or, would be raiſed to a *bright red heat*.

It appears therefore to be clearly proved, by my experiments, that a quantity of heat equal to that which 4214 grains (or about $9\frac{3}{4}$ oz.) of gold would require to heat it from the temperature of freezing water to be *red hot*, has no ſenſible effect upon a balance capable of indicating ſo ſmall a variation of weight as that of one millionth part of the body in queſtion; and, if the weight of gold is neither augmented nor leſſened by *one millionth part*, upon being heated from the point of *freezing water* to that of a *bright red heat*, I think we may very ſafely conclude, that *all attempts to diſcover any effect of heat upon the apparent weights of bodies, will be fruitleſs*.

HISTORICAL REMARKS ON SUICIDE.

Continued.

IT might lead to ſome intereſting concluſions to compare together, not only the number of ſuicides in different countries, but alſo the rank and principles, the ſex and age, of thoſe unhappy perſons by whom it has been committed. Mercier ſays, that at Paris it was the lower ranks who were moſt commonly guilty of it; that it was moſtly committed in garrets or hired lodgings; and that it proceeded from poverty or oppreſſion. A great many, he ſays, wrote letters to the magiſtrates before their deaths. Mr Moore's correſpondent from Geneva informed him, that from the year 1777 to 1787, more than 100 ſuicides were committed in Geneva; that two-thirds of theſe unfortunate perſons were men; that few of the clerical order have been known to commit it; and that it is not ſo much the end of an immoral, irreligious, diſſipated life, as the effect of melancholy and poverty. By the information obtained from the coroners of Kent, it appears, that of the thirty-two, mentioned in my laſt, three-fourths have deſtroyed themſelves by hanging; that the proportion of males to females has been about two-thirds of the former; that no one ſeaſon of the year is more diſtinguiſhed for this crime than another; and that ſuicide is upon the increaſe. Our accounts reſpecting the city of London are very imperfect; but it has been thought that ſuicide is more common among the great and wealthy than among the lower ranks, and that it is uſually the effect of diſſipation and gaming; and of late, the effect undoubtedly, of thoſe vaſt and ambitious ſpeculations in commerce which have overthrown ſome of the moſt opulent families connected with the metropolis.

Thoſe who have enquired into the cauſes of ſuicide in Britain, have enumerated many phyſical as well as moral cauſes. They have aſcribed it to the variableneſs of our climate, to the great uſe of animal food, to ſtrong ſpiritous liquors, to tea, and to the ſulphureous exhalations of the pit-coal uſed as fuel, which are ſaid to produce a depreſſion of ſpirits, and nervous affections. Of our climate, we have no cauſe to complain, nor have we any reaſon to impute any of our vices to its influence. There are many climates much more unfavourable, where ſuicide is ſcarcely known. That an exceſſive quantity of groſs animal food, or of ſtrong liquors, or of tea, will powerfully affect the human conſtitution, we will not deny: but before we conſider theſe as cauſes, it muſt firſt be determined whether thoſe who are guilty of ſelf-murder be much addicted to them; and if they are, whether there be not other cauſes much more violent in their nature, which have operated on their mind; for we ought not raſhly to attribute vicious effects

to any of thoſe things, which ſeem to have been created on purpoſe for the convenience or comfort of man. We are rather ſurpriſed to find that coal is mentioned even as a diſtant cauſe of ſuicide; for it is one of the bleſſings of our iſland: and a good coal fire we have always found rather conducive to good ſpirits, than injurious to them.

Among the moral cauſes which are ſuppoſed to co-operate in producing ſuicide in Britain, the freedom of our conſtitution and laws is reckoned one. That rational liberty ſhould have any tendency to encourage crimes of any kind, a Chriſtian philoſopher can never allow; for ſuch an opinion is totally diſcountenanced by enlightened views of nature. Mercier has aſcribed the frequency of ſuicide in Paris to the oppreſſion of the late government. Now it appears ſomewhat extraordinary, that ſuicide in one country ſhould be occaſioned by liberty, and in another by the want of it. One of theſe opinions muſt be falſe, and it is ſurely not difficult to diſtinguiſh which.

Humanity would in moſt caſes diſpoſe us to conclude, that ſuicide is the effect of inſanity, were there not ſo many inſtances of cool deliberate ſelf-murder. That ſuicide is an unnatural crime, which none but a madman would commit, compaſſion indeed may ſuppoſe; but the murder of a wife, a father, or a child, are alſo unnatural; yet compaſſion does not teach us in all caſes to aſcribe ſuch a crime to madneſs. Paſſion may often ariſe to ſuch a height of outrage as to be ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable from madneſs in its ſymptoms and its effects; yet we always make a diſtinction between that madneſs which ariſes from diſeaſe, and that which is owing to a violent perturbation of mind. If a perſon be capable of managing his worldly affairs, of making a will, and of diſpoſing of his property, immediately before his death, or after he formed the reſolution of dying by his own hands, ſuch a man is not to be conſidered as inſane.

But though a regard for truth prevents us from aſcribing ſuicide in all caſes to inſanity, we muſt aſcribe it either to inſanity, or to vicious paſſion. Theſe two diviſions, we imagine, will comprehend every ſpecies of it, whether ariſing from melancholy, *tædium vitæ* or *ennui*, diſappointment in ſchemes of ambition, or love, pride, gaming, or a deſire to avoid the ſhame of a public execution; paſſions which are often increaſed by falſe views of God, of man, and of a future ſtate, ariſing from deiſm and infidelity. If theſe be the cauſes of ſuicide in modern times, what a diſgraceful contraſt do they form to thoſe principles, which actuated many of the ancient philoſophers, the Gentoos, the Japaneſe, and the worſhippers of Odin? When they committed ſuicide, they committed it from principle, from a belief of its lawfulneſs, and the hope of being rewarded for what they judged an honourable ſacrifice. But, in modern times, we are ſorry to ſay, when it is not the effect of madneſs, it is the effect of vice; and when it is the effect of vice, it proves that the vicious paſſions are then indulged to the higheſt degree; for there is no crime which a man can commit that is ſo ſtrong a ſymptom of the violence of particular paſſions. It is from not attending to this circumſtance, that it has been found ſo difficult to refute the arguments in favour of ſuicide. If the criminality of ſuicide be confined merely to the violent action, many apologies may be made for it: but if it be conſidered ſolely as the effect of vice, as the ſtrongeſt ſymptom of ungoverned paſſions, he who undertakes its defence muſt undertake the defence of what all men will loudly condemn.

It is unneceſſary then to enter particularly into the arguments of thoſe caſuiſts, who have undertaken the deſpicable office of advocates for the

crime of ſuicide. Their talents might ſurely have been employed more uſefully to the world and more honourably to themſelves, than in pleading for a crime which, if it were committed by every man to whom their principles would make it lawful, would totally deſtroy ſome of the nobleſt virtues, fortitude, patience, and reſignation; nay, would deſtroy ſociety itſelf, and to teach us to deſpiſe the opinion, that this world is a ſtate of preparation for another. 'I came into life without my own conſent, and may I not quit it at pleaſure?' ſay the advocates for ſuicide. If, becauſe we came into life without our own conſent, we might quit it at pleaſure, why may we not ſpend our life alſo as we pleaſe? Why may we not rob and murder, and commit every kind of crime, if *more inclination* is to be the rule of action? Thus, upon the principles of ſuicide, the highwayman and murderer may reaſon, and every man may find a ſufficient apology for any crime which he is tempted to commit. Or this abſurdity may be otherwiſe anſwered; as we came into life without our own conſent, we muſt have come with the conſent of ſome other being; and logic ſays, that with the conſent of that Being only can we lawfully quit it.

It is ſufficient ſhortly to ſay, that ſuicide is contrary to the ſtrongeſt principle of the human conſtitution, ſelf-preſervation; that it is rebellion againſt God; that it is cruelty to the feelings and reputation, and often takes away the ſubſiſtence of a wife, a child or a father; that it proves a want of fortitude to brave misfortunes; that it delivers only from imagined, to plunge into real evils. We may add, that almoſt every inſtance of ſuicide of which we have heard, was raſh, imprudent, and premature; interrupted a uſeful life, or prevented a more honourable death. Had Cato's pride permitted him to yield himſelf to the generoſity of Cæſar, his character and influence might have contributed to retard the ſlavery of his country, which his death tended to haſten. Had Brutus and Caſſius not executed the fatal reſolution which they had formed, of dying by their own hands in caſe of misfortune, the battle of Phillipi might have had a very different iſſue. Had Hannibal ſurrendered himſelf to the Romans, inſtead of ſwallowing poiſon, he would have gained more glory in braving their tortures than he won in the battle of Cannæ; for to die innocently and heroically is the greateſt exertion of human fortitude.

As ſuicide was deemed a crime by the moſt illuſtrious and virtuous of the Greek and Roman philoſophers, it was conſidered as a crime by the laws, and treated with ignominy. By the law of Thebes, ſuicides were to have no honours paid to their memory. The Athenian law ordained the hand which committed the deed to be cut off, and burned apart from the reſt of the body. The body was not buried with the uſual ſolemnities, but was ignominiouſly thrown into ſome pit. In Cea and Maſſilia (the ancient *Marſeilles*) it was conſidered as a crime againſt the ſtate; and it was therefore neceſſary for thoſe who wiſhed to deſtroy themſelves to obtain permiſſion from the magiſtrates. Plutarch acquaints us, that an unaccountable paſſion for ſuicide ſeized the Mileſian virgins; from indulging which they could not be prevented by the tears and intreaties of parents and friends: but what perſuaſion and intreaty could not effect was accompliſhed by very different means. A decree was iſſued, 'that the body of every young woman who hanged herſelf, ſhould be dragged naked through the ſtreets by the ſame rope with which ſhe had committed the deed.' This wiſe edict put a complete ſtop to the extraordinary frenzy, and ſuicide was no longer committed by the virgins of Miletus.

In the early part of the Roman hiſ-

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tory, there ſeems to have been ſeldom occaſion for framing any laws againſt ſuicide. The only inſtance recorded occurs in the reign of Tarquinius Priſcus. The ſoldiers who were appointed to make drains and common ſewers, thinking themſelves diſgraced by ſuch ſervile offices, put themſelves to death in great numbers. The king ordered the bodies of all the ſelf-murderers to be expoſed on croſſes and this put an effectual ſtop to the practice. It is doubtful whether there was any ſtanding law againſt ſuicide during the exiſtence of the republic; but during the reign of the emperors, it was thought proper to lay it under certain regulations, though not abſolutely to condemn it as a crime. In Juſtinian's Digeſts there is a law, by which it was enacted, 'that if perſons accuſed, or who had been found guilty of any crime, ſhould make away with themſelves, their effects ſhould be confiſcated.' But this puniſhment only took place when confiſcation of goods happened to be the penalty appointed by the law, for the crime of which the ſelf-murderer was accuſed or found guilty, and was not inflicted for ſuicide committed in any other circumſtances.

When the Chriſtian church had extended its juriſdiction in the Roman empire, it was decreed in the ſixth century that no commemoration ſhould be made in the Euchariſt for ſuch as deſtroyed themſelves; neither ſhould their bodies be carried out to burial with pſalms, nor have the uſual ſervice ſaid over them. This eccleſiaſtical law continued till the reformation, when it was admitted into the ſtatute code of England, by the authority of parliament. As an additional puniſhment, however, confiſcation of lands and goods ſeems to have been adopted from the Danes, as we learn from Bracton. At preſent the puniſhment conſiſts in confiſcating all the perſonal property of a *felo de ſe* for the uſe of the crown, and in excluding the body from interment in conſecrated ground. The warrant of the coroner requires that the body ſhould be buried in ſome public highway, and a ſtake driven through it, to increaſe the ignominy.

To enquire into the prevalence and cauſes of crimes, in order to diſcover the moſt judicious methods of preventing them, is the duty of the patriot and the Chriſtian. Suicide, we find, is a common and an increaſing evil: but it is a difficult matter to find an effectual remedy; for what motives can be held out ſufficient to influence that man's mind, who is deaf to the voice of nature ſpeaking within him, and to the voice of nature's God, declaring that he is ſtationed at a poſt, which it is his duty to maintain? His reputation and property are indeed within the reach of the laws, his body may be treated with ignominy, and his property confiſcated; but this puniſhment will not be a preventative, even if it could be always inflicted; and that it is ſeldom inflicted, though the laws have decreed it, is well known. The humanity of the preſent age diſpoſes us to ſympathize with the relations of the deceaſed, inſtead of demanding that the ſentence of the law ſhould be executed. It is a generally received opinion, and a juſt one, that puniſhments decreed by human laws, ſhould be directed only againſt ſuch crimes as are injurious to ſociety; but when it is hence inferred, that ſuicide ought not to be ſubject to the cognizance of human laws, every rule of logic is violated. There is no man, however mean in ſtation and in talents, whoſe life may not, on ſome occaſions, be uſeful to the community at large; and to conclude that a perſon who fancies himſelf uſeleſs, may therefore lawfully put a period to his life, is as falſe reaſoning as it would be to conclude, that by killing a poor man, who lives on the public, we ſhould perform an action not only innocent but meritorious, as

we ſhould thereby free ſociety from one of its burdens.

Theſe letters on the ſubject of ſuicide, would, perhaps, be incomplete, if we denied ourſelves the pleaſure of concluding them, with a beautiful paſſage from Mr Melmoth's letters, publiſhed under the name of Fitzoſborne. That elegant and judicious writer ſays, "I am perſuaded this diſguſt of life is frequently indulged out of a principle of mere vanity. It is eſteemed as a mark of uncommon refinement, and as placing a man above the ordinary level of his ſpecies, to ſeem ſuperior to the vulgar feelings of happineſs. True good ſenſe, however, moſt certainly conſiſts, not in deſpiſing, but in managing our ſtock of life to the beſt advantage: as a cheerful acquieſcence in the meaſures of Providence, is one of the ſtrongeſt ſymptoms of a well-conſtituted mind. Self-wearineſs is a circumſtance that ever attends folly; and to contemn our being is the greateſt, and, indeed, the peculiar infirmity of human nature. It is a noble ſentiment which Tully puts into the mouth of Cato, in his Treatiſe on old age. 'Non libet mihi (ſays that venerable Roman) deplorare viram, quod multi, et ii docti, ſæpe fecerunt; neque me vixiſſe pœnitet: quoniam ita vixi, ut non fruſtra me natum exiſtimem.'

"It is in the power, indeed, of but a very ſmall proportion of mankind to act the ſame glorious part that afforded ſuch high ſatisfaction to this diſtinguiſhed patriot; but the number is yet far more inconſiderable of thoſe who cannot, in any ſtation, ſecure to themſelves a ſufficient fund of complacency to render life juſtly valuable. Who is it that is placed out of the reach of the higheſt of all gratifications, thoſe of the generous affections; and that cannot provide for his own happineſs by contributing ſomething to the welfare of others? As this diſeaſe of the mind generally breaks out with moſt violence in thoſe, who are ſuppoſed to be endowed with a greater delicacy of taſte and reaſon than is the uſual allotment of their fellow creatures: one may aſk them, whether there is any ſatiety in the purſuits of uſeful knowledge? or, if one can never be weary of benefiting mankind? Will not the fine arts ſupply a laſting feaſt to the mind? or can there be wanting a pleaſureable employment, ſo long as there remains even one advantageous truth to be diſcovered or confirmed? To complain that life has no joys, while there is a ſingle creature whom we can relieve by our bounty, aſſiſt by our counſels, or enliven by our preſence, is to lament the loſs of that which we poſſeſs, and is juſt as rational as to die of thirſt with the cup in our hands. But the misfortune is, when a man is ſettled into a habit of receiving all his pleaſures from the mere ſelfiſh indulgencies; he wears out of his mind the reliſh of every nobler enjoyment, at the ſame time that his powers of the ſenſual kind are growing more languid by each repetition. It is no wonder, therefore, he ſhould fill up the meaſure of his gratification, long before he has completed the circle of his duration; and either wretchedly ſit down the remainder of his days in diſcontent, or raſhly throw them up in deſpair."

CONSIDERATIONS ON FEMALE DRESS,

AT DIFFERENT PERIODS, AND IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

THE origin of clothing aroſe perhaps, neither from neceſſity, nor ſhame, but from an innate principle in the fair ſex, to improve by art thoſe charms which nature had beſtowed on them. Clothes were invented in a climate where they were but little wanted as a defence from the cold, and in a period, when the human race were too innocent, as well as too rude and un-

uncultivated, to have any ſenſe of ſhame. The natives of both ſexes, on the coaſt of Patagonia, go almoſt naked; yet, the women, in point of ornament, in a great meaſure keep pace with the men, being painted nearly in the ſame manner. Some of them not only wear bracelets on their arms, but even ſtrings of beads are alſo interwoven with the hair. Though the wandering Tartars are perhaps the moſt rude and uncultivated people exiſting; yet their women, though in a great meaſure confined, are loaded with a profuſion of the richeſt ornaments their huſbands or friends can procure them. The love of variety, perhaps contributed a great deal to the uſe of clothing: for abſolute nakedneſs can afford no variety, there being always the ſame object, in ſhape and colour. Theſe unvearied objects could make no impreſſion on the ſenſes, nor make any addition to the paſſion of love, which requires novelty of appearance.

Though the firſt clothing mentioned in hiſtory, was ſaid to conſiſt only of leaves ſewed together, yet the ſkins of animals were probably very early made uſe of for that purpoſe. Thorns, ſharp bones, and the like, ſupplied the place of needles in the early ages, and ſuch indeed is ſtill the caſe in many parts of the ſouth ſeas.

In proportion, as both ſexes became more civilized, they grew anxious to become more agreeable to each other, and conſequently their habits were changed, and lighter materials made uſe of, than thoſe of the ſkins of animals.

The art of ornamenting the body with various materials, was far from being unknown to many of the Aſiatic nations, even ſo far back as the day of Abraham, ſince we find they had ear, jewels of ſeveral kinds, and even veſſels of gold and ſilver. When the ſervant of Abraham went to aſk Rebecca for his maſter's ſon Iſaac, he carried with him, jewels of ſeveral kinds, bracelets, and rings, as the beſt manner of procuring him a favourable reception. The ſame Rebecca, we afterwards find in poſſeſſion of perfumed garments, which ſhe put on her ſon Jacob, in order to perſonate Eſau, and thereby cheat his father. Hence it is evident, that perfumes muſt have been then in uſe; and, when they had arrived at the luxury of perfuming their clothes, it may naturally be concluded, that their dreſs in thoſe days, was not ſo ſimple as we are generally taught to believe.

We may infer, from the ſongs of the ancient bards, and the natural diſpoſition of man, that beauty has in all ages been the ſubject of praiſe and flattery; and hence it was natural for the women, to wiſh to ſee thoſe charms in themſelves, which ſo much captivated the men. Before looking glaſſes were invented, the clear ſurface of a ſmooth pool was the only thing they could apply to, in order to ſee their own faces; but the art of making mirrors is ſaid to have been firſt found out on the coaſts of the Tyrian ſea, which were made of highly poliſhed metal. The uſe of mirrors among the Egyptians and Iſraelites, is a proof that thoſe ages were not ſo rude and ſimple as they are generally repreſented. Even in theſe days, many nations do not know them. When Captain Cook viſited New Zealand, the natives were ſurpriſed at viewing their own faces in a glaſs, and behaved on the occaſion, with the moſt ridiculous grimace and merriment.

As the face is the ſeat of female charms and graces, the diſcovery of the mirror, muſt have been conſidered by women as the moſt valuable of all human inventions. Before this invention, a woman muſt have entirely depended on the relation of others, whether ſhe was beautiful or not. On her own dexterity, or on the word of her handmaid, ſhe muſt have

reſted

reſted the important buſineſs of properly dreſſing her head, and ſuiting colours to her complexion. In theſe matters ſhe might be often deceived, while ſhe truſted to others; but the invention of the mirror made her miſtreſs of herſelf.

It has been the cuſtom of all ages, as well as the preſent, to cenſure women for the love of dreſs, by exclaiming, that the preſent times afford inſtances of extravagance and folly in that particular, to which the ancients were ſtrangers; and that this country, in point of folly, in female dreſs, exceeds all the reſt of the world. This accuſation, however, is leſs true than faſhionable: for, if we look back to very remote periods of antiquity, we ſhall find, that the ſame thing was then the ſubject of cenſure, as well as at preſent. The third chapter of Iſaiah gives us an account of the finery of the daughters of Babylon, which no modern extravagance has hitherto equalled. The extravagance of Cleopatra, in her dreſs and entertainments, would in our times beggar the moſt wealthy potentate on the globe. Even in the days of Moſes and Aaron, we find that precious ſtones decorated the prieſtly ornaments; but it is probable, that the ancients were unacquainted with diamonds, on which the moderns have fixed ſo much value.

As ſoon as the Greeks began to throw off the fetters of barbarity, among their improvements, the convenience and elegance of dreſs took the firſt ſtep among the fair.

The Athenian ladies commonly employed their whole morning in dreſſing themſelves in the moſt becoming manner, and in uſing every art of adorning themſelves. It is certain, that the women of antiquity were no leſs anxious to adorn their perſons than the moderns, and the materials made uſe of for that purpoſe, were neither ſo few nor ſimple as moſt modern writers pretend. The Roman ladies, after bathing in the morning, returned to the toilet, where every woman of fortune was attended by a number of ſlaves, who waited their orders. They were conſtantly viewing themſelves in their glaſſes, practiſed various attitudes, ſtudied the airs of negligence, the ſmiles that beſt became them, and directed the placing of every lock of hair, and every part of the head-dreſs.

ON THE JOURNEY OF LIFE.

A DREAM.

HAVING met with ſome diſappointments in the courſe of the day which gave me a good deal of uneaſineſs, when I went to bed the impreſſion was ſo ſtrong upon my mind that for ſome time it prevented me from ſleeping. I endeavoured to overcome the impreſſion by reflecting on the vanity and unſatisfactory nature of all ſublunary things, which had in ſome meaſure the deſired effect. It procured a ſlumber accompanied with the following dream:

Methought I was travelling a long journey, and having got, as I imagined, about half way, I ſat down to contemplate a little upon what part of the way was paſt, and to try to form ſome notion of the part that was yet to be gone through: for having found the road but very indifferent hitherto, I was beginning to tire. I had, during a very conſiderable ſpace, been now and then making a ſtand, and endeavouring to ſurvey the road before me ſo far as I could ſee, which, in general, always appeared to be much ſmoother and pleaſanter at a diſtance than what it proved as I advanced forward. At other times a thick miſt totally hid it from my ſight altogether. When the ſtraight road proved rugged and fatiguing, I now and then had tryed a bye path which invited by the fragrance

fragrance of its bowers and the coolneſs of its ſhades, but I always found that in place of advancing by theſe averſions, I was led backwards, and had ſome difficulty to make up the ſpace which I had loſt. While I ſat in this half deſponding ſtate, a young lady, travelling the ſame way, came up. I thought I gueſſed from her countenance that all her expectations had not been gratified more than mine. As her appearance and mein much pleaſed me I ventured to accoſt her. I ſhortly told her my ſituation, and regretted that I had not a companion on my journey to whom I might communicate my feelings. I thought that it would render the road ſhorter by making the pleaſures doubly pleaſing, and alleviate the misfortunes and bad luck by dividing the pains which all the travellers ſeemed liable to ſuffer. While I was thus communicating my ſentiments, a grave old man came up behind, and ſtepping in before us, 'Be not raſh my children, ſaid he, no doubt the road you are travelling is toilſome and weary, and proves often fatiguing to the moſt ſpirited travellers. You obſerve juſtly, that company makes it much more eaſy and comfortable, and as I perceive you have advanced near the half of the journey, I would adviſe you to take a companion and not travel longer ſingly, for the part of the road which is before you is more difficult and more dangerous than what is paſt. This, I perceive, you are partly convinced of from the diſappointments you have already met with. In future your hopes will be leſs ſanguine and you will be more apt to ſuccumb under your toils; there will be fewer pleaſures to ſeduce you; you will be obliged to travel much ſlower, and you will daily feel your fatigues, and will be much more apprehenſive of the dangers that lie in your way, even though they are not of themſelves more terrible than what you have paſſed. Be warned of theſe things and profit by them.'

I thanked him with gratitude and heartfelt emotion for his counſel, and was going to addreſs the lady, who all this while ſtood liſtening with the moſt earneſt attention, when, 'hold, cried he, although the beſt and moſt deſirable way is to get a companion, and of the other ſex, to accompany you on your journey, yet you muſt not be too raſh. Unleſs you have both the ſame opinions with regard to the accommodation and entertainment you are to meet with, and a taſte for the ſame pleaſures that are to be found in your way, inſtead of your being a comfort and pleaſure, you will mutually retard each other, and embitter the pleaſure which each would have reliſhed ſingly.' I could not help agreeing with his obſervations though I formed ſuch an opinion of the lady's goodneſs and affability that I did not think whether ſhe would be equally ſatisfied with mine. It is your buſineſs, he added, to make the approach, but do it cautiouſly and conceal nothing that may affect your journey, for diſſimulation now may prove a bane to your enjoyments through every part of your journey. Upon this he turned to go away: In paſſing he gave a ſhort advice to the lady, but he ſpoke in ſo low a tone that I could not hear what he ſaid, only I thought I could make out the expreſſions *good nature, good humour, affectionate, and loving*. He then in a ſudden vaniſhed, at which I ſuddenly ſtarted, and found it was a dream. Z.

DIVISION OF TIME.

THERE is no correct account reſpecting the ancient diviſion of time; it is ſaid, by ſome, the Egyptian years were but months: the Arcadians divided their year into three months, the Romans into ten. This diviſion Romulus made viz. March, April, May, June, Quintilis, Sextilis, September,

tember, October, November, and December, Quintilis, and Sextilis were afterward changed into July and Auguſt, in honour of the two Ceſars. Ninna added January and February. Even this increaſe divided the year into only 354 days; the eleven days he doubled every ſecond year, and made another month, called Mercidonius; this intercalation was left to the prieſt, who frequently omitted it: thus feaſts fell on different times. Julius Ceſar, to rectify this, made one year 15 months; he then added the 11 days to the 354, making the year 365 days, equal to the courſe of the ſun within ſix hours; theſe hours were left alone till they made one day; every fourth he placed this day in that part of the calendar where the intercalary month uſed to be put, viz. five days before the end of February, and ſixth of the calends of March; for this year the ſupernumerary day was called Biſſextus; this is called the Julian period, and would have been correct, had the ſun apparently finiſhed its revolution in 365 days 6 hours. The interval of the time from the ſun's leaving the firſt point of Aries, till his return to it, is 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes and 48 ſeconds, being 11 minutes and 12 ſeconds leſs than the Julian computation; this, in a century, makes a difference of 18 hours 24 ſeconds.—At the time of the council of Nice, in 1582, it was found that the ſun had entered the equinoctial circle on the 11th of March inſtead of the 21ſt. Pope Gregory XIII. took theſe ten days out, and ordered that the 11th ſhould be deemed the 21ſt. This was called New Stile, and immediately adopted in every country which acknowledged the Pope's ſupremacy—not admitted in England till the middle of this century. To prevent this difference again occurring, the Pope ordered every 100th year ſhould be a common year, not a leap year. This will lead into an error on the contrary ſide; every century the difference does not amount to one day; to render it more equal, every 400th year ſhould be leap year.

THE HEROIC PRINCESS.

VANDA, Queen of Poland, poſſeſſed all the charms of beauty, and joined to all the virtues of her ſex, a maſculine ſpirit and heroic courage. Her affability captivated all hearts; being guided by prudence and juſtice, ſhe reigned with glory, and her people enjoyed the happineſs of a wiſe adminiſtration.

Rithogar, a Prince of one of the neighbouring ſtates, having fallen in love with her, ſent ambaſſadors to demand her in marriage, and to declare war againſt her, in caſe of a refuſal. He doubted not but the terror of his arms would oblige the Queen to accept of his offers; but in this he was much miſtaken. Vanda had too high a ſpirit not to be enraged againſt a barbarian, who ſhould dare to pay his addreſſes to her in menaces. She prepared for war, and having animated her troops with the ſame courage ſhe herſelf poſſeſſed, ſhe led them forth to meet the enemy, over whom ſhe gained a complete victory, without ſtriking a blow. At the head of her own army, ſhe harangued that of Rithogar, with ſuch irreſiſtable eloquence, that all his chief officers, vanquiſhed by her perſon and ſpirit, refuſed to fight againſt her. This great Princeſs, merely by the force of her eloquence, ſoftened the ſavage hearts of her enemy's ſoldiers, who forſook their ranks, threw down their arms at her feet, and adored her as a divinity. Rithogar, tranſported with love, ſhame, and deſpair, drew his ſword, and ſheathed it in his boſom. Vanda returned in triumph to Cracow, where ſhe and her ſubjects enjoyed the bleſſings of an uninterrupted peace.

General Biography; or Lives, Critical and Hiſtorical, of the moſt eminent Perſons of all ages, Countries, Conditions, and Profeſſions, arranged according to Alphabetical order.—Chiefly compoſed by John Aiken, M. D. and the late Rev. William Enfield. LL.D. Vol. I. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. Robinſons, &c.

With regard to the plan of this work, the authors obſerve, that although the *alphabetical order* is void of all claim to ingenuity, yet its great convenience, together with the inſurmountable difficulties accompanying every other method, when attempted to be put into practice, have given the ſame preference with us, that it has generally obtained with our brother-writers. If any one who has conceived the peculiar advantages likely to reſult from ſome other mode of arrangement—that, for inſtance, according to claſſes of perſons—will make the experient, he will preſently find ſo many doubts ariſe with reſpect to the claſſification of individuals, and ſuch a neceſſity for ſubordinate diviſions, framed upon different and incompatible principles, that he will perceive the danger of inextricable confuſion.

Two other circumſtances by which ſelection may be effected, are, *country* and *age*. We have ſeen no general biographical work which is free from a deciſive ſtamp of *nationality*; that is, which does not include a greater number of names of natives of the country in which they were compoſed, than the fair proportion of relative fame and excellence can juſtify. Perhaps this fault is in ſome meaſure excuſable, on account of the ſuperior intereſt taken by all nations in eminence of their growth; and if the readers are gratified by ſuch deference to their feelings, writers will not fail to comply with their wiſhes. We do not pretend to have made no ſacrifices of this ſort; but being ſenſible that diſproportion is a real blemiſh in a work, and that in this inſtance it partakes of the nature of injuſtice, we hope we ſhall be found not to have exceeded the bounds of moderation in this particular.

The circumſtance of *age* or *period* in which the claimants have lived, has an operation ſimilar to that of the country. We are much more impreſſed with the relative conſequence of perſons who have trod [trodden] the ſtage of life within our own memory, than of thoſe whoſe ſcene of action has long been cloſed, though equally eminent in their day. Of courſe, curioſity is more active reſpecting the former; and to this natural predilection it may be proper for the biographer to pay ſome deference, provided he does not too much infringe the principle of equitable proviſion, which ought eſſentially to regulate a work, profeſſing to comprehend every age of the world, as well as every country. One cauſe that will always give to modern and domeſtic articles ſomewhat more than their exact ſhare of extent, is the greater eaſe and copiouſneſs with which information reſpecting them is uſually obtainable. This preſents a temptation to prolixity, which a writer can with difficulty reſiſt.

Prolixity, however, we have in all caſes ſtudiouſly avoided; which leads us to ſpeak of the remaining conſideration, viz; that of the *compaſs* we have allowed ourſelves. Biography will certainly bear to be written much at large; and in judicious hands it is often the more entertaining and inſtructive the more it is minute. But with ſo vaſt a ſubject before us as the lives of eminent men of all ages and nations, it is obviouſly impracticable to employ a very extenſive ſcale; and the aim muſt rather be, to give a ſet of characteriſtic ſketches in miniature, than a ſeries of finiſhed and full-fixed portraits. The ſcope we have taken admits, in our opinion, of ſuch execution with regard to all characters of real eminence; and we hope we have diſmiſſed few of that claſs, without fully anſwering the leading biographical queſtions, What was he? What did he? His moral and intellectual qualities, the principal events of life, his relative merit in the department he occupied, and eſpecially, the manner in which he was firſt formed to his art or profeſſion, with the gradations by which he roſe to excellence, have engaged our attentive inquiries, and we have endeavoured to develope them with all the accuracy

that conciſeneſs would allow. But having been thus diffuſe with reſpect to the higher claimants, we have been neceſſarily reduced to very brief notices of thoſe of inferior rank. Theſe articles we have conſidered as rather deſigned for being conſulted than read; and we have compriſed, under a few ſhort heads of information, all that we had to ſay concerning them.'

Beſides the references to authorities occaſionally given in the ſubſtance of articles, at the end of every one are printed in Italic the names of all the authors who have been conſulted in compiling the narrative. But is is to be underſtood that, in general, we have derived from theſe ſources the *matter of fact* alone, not the *ſentiments* and *reflections*.

Having detained the reader thus long in giving an outline of the plan of this production, which, both from its own nature and the character of its editors, we conſider as entitled to great attention, we ſhall conclude by laying before him a ſpecimen of its execution, in the life of D'Alembert; from the pen of Dr Enfield:

" Alembert, John le Rond d', a celebrated French philoſopher and mathematician, and an elegant writer, was born at Paris on the 16th of November, 1717. He came into the world under the diſadvantage of illegitimate birth, and was expoſed as a foundling by his mother, who is ſaid to have been Mademoiſelle Tencin, ſiſter of the Abbe, afterwards Cardinal, Tencin. His ſurname, de le Rond, is derived from the church near which he was expoſed. He owed his life to the humanity of the overſeer of the quarter, who put him to nurſe to the wife of a glazier. Information of the ſituation of the child being communicated to his father Deſtouches Canon, he liſtened to the voice of nature and duty, and took meaſures for his future ſubſiſtence and education.

" The genius of D'Alembert did not wait the maturity of age to diſplay its powers. When he was only ten years old, his ſchoolmaſter declared, that he had nothing further to teach him. He was ſent to finiſh his education at the college of Mazarin, where his attention raiſed him to the firſt diſtinction. Early in his academic courſe, his attention was directed to theology; and he compoſed a " Commentary on the Epiſtle of Paul to the Romans," which raiſed in the Janſeniſts an expectation that D'Alembert would prove an able champion in their cauſe, and might even become a ſecond Paſchal. His penetrating intellect, however, found more ſatisfaction in the demonſtrative reaſonings of mathematicians, than in the vague diſputations of controverſialiſts; and he, at this time, conceived a predilection for mathematical ſtudies, which remained with him through life.

" Retaining a grateful attachment to the aſylum of his infancy and childhood, and deſiring nothing more than a quiet retreat, where he might proſecute his ſtudies in tranquility, D'Alembert, upon leaving the college, took up his reſidence in the family of his nurſe, the only family which he could conſider as his own. Here he lived many years in great ſimplicity of manners, eſteeming himſelf happy in contributing, as his fortunes improved, to the comfortable ſubſiſtence of thoſe, whoſe kind attention had, during his early years, ſupplied the place of parental affection. His worthy hoſteſs, not having enjoyed the advantages of education, was not aware how great a man ſhe had foſtered; and, though ſhe frequently heard him mentioned as the author of books which were admired, ſhe ſtill regarded him as an object of compaſſion. " You will never," ſaid ſhe one day to him, " be any thing but a philoſopher; and what is a philoſopher but a fool, who toils and plagues himſelf, that people may talk of him after he is dead?"

" In order to enlarge his means of comfortable ſubſiſtence, D'Alembert at firſt turned his thoughts to the law, and took his degrees in that profeſſion. Finding this employment unſuitable to his inclination, he next applied to the ſtudy of medicine. But his fondneſs for mathematics roſe ſuperior to every other conſideration; and rather than deny himſelf the gratification of following, without reſtraint, the ſtrong bias of his mind towards theſe ſtudies, he choſe to decline the benefit of any lucrative profeſſion.

" At the age of twenty-four, in the year 1741, the original genius of D'Alembert for mathematical inveſtigation appeared in a maſterly correction of the

the errors of Reyneau's "Analyſe Demontree," a work of high repute in analytics; and this work, in concurrence with his general reputation for uncommon talents, obtained him an honourable admiſſion into the academy of ſciences. He now applied himſelf with great aſſiduity to the ſolution of the problem concerning the motion and path of a body which paſſes obliquely from a rarer to a denſer fluid. This inquiry led him into general ſpeculations on the forces of moving bodies, which produced "A Treatiſe on Dynamics," [Tratise de Dynamique] 4to. Paris, 1744, 1758, firſt publiſhed in 1743. In this treatiſe, the author eſtabliſhes an equality at each inſtant between the changes which the motion of a body has undergone, and the forces of powers which have been employed to produce them; in other words, he ſeparates into two parts the action of the moving powers, and conſiders the one as producing alone the motion of the body in the ſecond inſtant, and the other as employed to deſtroy that which it had in the firſt. This principle he afterwards applied to the theory of equilibrium, and to the motion of fluids: and all the problems, before reſolved in phyſics, became, in ſome meaſure, its corollaries. The diſcovery of this new principle was followed by that of a new calculus, the firſt applications of which appeared in "A Diſcourſe on the general Theory of the Winds," [Reflexions ſur la Cauſe generale des Vents] 4to. Paris, 1747, which, in 1746, obtained the prize-medal in the academy of Berlin. This ſociety was ſo fully ſatisfied of the merit of this diſcourſe, that they elected him an honorary member. It happened at this time, that the king of Pruſſia terminated a glorious campaign by an honourable peace. D'Alembert availed himſelf of this fortunate circumſtance, and dedicated his work to the king in theſe three Latin verſes:

"Hæc ego de ventis, dum ventorum ocyor alis
"Palantes agit Auſtriacos Fredericos, et orbi,
"Inſignis lauro, ramum prætendit olivæ,
"Swifter than wind, while of the winds I write,
"The foes of conqu'ring Frederic ſpeed their flight;
"While laurel o'er the hero's temple bends,
"To the tir'd world the olive branch he ſends.

"Flattered by this dedication, Frederic ſent him a polite letter, and from this time ranked him among his philoſophical friends.—His new "Calculus of Partial Differences," D'Alembert, in 1747, applied to the ſubjects of ſounds, and vibrating chords. He afterwards employed his principle concerning motion, in explaining the motion of any body of a given figure. In 1749, he reſolved the problem of the preceſſion of the equinoxes, determining its quantity, and explaining the phænomenon of the nutation of the terreſtrial axis diſcovered by Dr Bradley; "Recherches ſur la Preceſſion des Equinoxes, et ſur la Nutation de l'Axe de la Terre dans le Syſteme Newtonien," 4to. Paris, 1749; and, in 1752, he publiſhed a treatiſe, containing much original matter, under the title, "An Eſſay towards a New Theory of the Motion of the Fluids," [Eſſai d'une nouvelle Theorie du Mouvement des Fluides] 4to. Paris, 1752. In the ſame year he publiſhed, "Elements of Muſic," upon the principles of Rameau; an excellent abridgment of that author's doctrines. About the ſame time appeared, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin, "Reſearches concerning the Integral Calculus." Other pieces, publiſhed at various times in the Memoirs of the Academies of Paris and Berlin, were afterwards collected under the title of "Opuſcules Mathematiques," publiſhed at Paris in nine volumes 4to. in 1773, or "Memoirs on various Subjects of Geometry, Mechanics, Optics, and Aſtronomy," from the year 1761 to 1773. D'Alembert alſo wrote "Reſearches on ſeveral important Points of the Syſtem of the World." [Recherches ſur differens Points importans du Syſteme du Monde] 5 vols. 4to, Paris, 1754, 1756. Theſe numerous and original productions, in various branches

of mathematical ſcience, entitle D'Alembert to rank among the moſt celebrated mathematicians of the age. He has had the merit of adding a new calculus, or method of performing mathematical inveſtigations and reſolutions, to thoſe of the laſt age, and new branches of the ſcience of motion to thoſe diſcovered by Galileo, Huygens, and Newton.

" With the character of an eminent mathematician, D'Alembert united that of a polite ſcholar. Genius, judgmen, and elegant taſte are happily diſplayed in his miſcellaneous works, and he is juſtly regarded in France as one of the firſt writers of that nation. He is generally underſtood to have been the firſt projector of that vaſt undertaking, to which the world has been much indebted for the diffuſion of knowledge, " The Encyclopædia." This work was begun in 1750 by D'Alembert, Voltaire, Diderot, and many other learned men. The work is enriched by many valuable articles in mathematics, hiſtory, and polite literature, from the pen of D'Alembert: and it may be remarked, to the credit of his judgment, that his ſtyle is always ſuited to his ſubject, and that he never aſſumes the language of poetry in ſcientific diſcuſſions. To him the public is indebted for the excellent preliminary diſcourſe of the Encyclopædia; and the veſtibule of this ſuperb edifice will remain a laſting monument of his genius and good ſenſe: it is an elegant diſſertation, in which are united ſtrength and harmony, learning and taſte, juſt thinking, and fine writing. The general table which he gives of human knowledge, diſcovers a comprehenſive, well-informed, and methodical mind; and the judgments, which he paſſes upon writers who have contributed to the improvement of ſcience, are worthy of an enlightened and impartial philoſopher. D'Alembert diſplayed his fine talents in many other literary productions. His " Tranſlation of ſelect Parts of Taticus," [Traduction de divers Morceaux de Tacite] in 2 vols. 12mo, afford an elegant ſpecimen of his learning. His " Memoirs of Chriſtina, Queen of Sweden," is a maſterly piece of biographical writing. In this work the author ſhows that he underſtood the natural rights of mankind, and that he had the courage to aſſert them. His " Eſſay on the Alliance berween the Learned and the Great," gravely, but keenly, ſatiriſes the mean ſervility of the former, and the inſolent tyranny of the latter. A lady of high rank, hearing the author accuſed of having exaggerated the deſpotiſm of the great, and the ſubmiſſion which they require from thoſe who are honoured with their patronage, ſaid ſmartly, " If he had conſulted me, I could have told him ſtill more of the matter." Theſe pieces, together with other eſſays on ſubjects of polite literature; " Eloges," on Bernouilli, Terraſſon, Monteſquieu, Mallet, and Dumarſais; and " Elements of Philoſophy," were about the year 1760 collected into five volumes, and publiſhed under the title of " Melanges de Literature, d'Hiſtorie, et de Philoſophie," 5 vols. 12mo. [Literary, Hiſtorical, and Philoſophical Miſcellanies.]

" In 1765, D'Alembert publiſhed a piece " On the Deſtruction of the Jeſuits," [De la Deſtruction des Jeſuites] in 12mo. Paris, 1765, in which he treats with nearly equal ſeverity the Jeſuits and their adverſaries. He gives a large collection of epigrams occaſioned by the fall of this body, with ſome of his own. This work treats the diſciples of Ignatius Loyola with ſo much inſulting contempt, that it may nor improperly be ſaid of the author, " Non ridet, ſed irridet." [He deals in deriſion rather than ridicule.] D'Alembert excelled in panegyric no leſs than ſatire. Upon his election, in 1772, to the office of ſecretary to the French academy, he continued the " Hiſtory of the Academy," publiſhed by Meſſrs Peliſſon and D'Olivet, by writing in the form of *éloges*, or panegyrics " An Hiſtory of thoſe Members of the French Academy who died between the Years 1700 and 1771," [Hiſtorie des Membres de l'Academie Francoiſe, morts depuis 1700 juiqu'en 1771] 6 vols. 12mo, Paris, 1787. This collection, notwithſtanding ſome inequalities of ſtyle, is juſtly admired; it abounds with lively portraits, amuſing anecdotes, ingenious parallels, and fine reflections.

" While D'Alembert confined himſelf chiefly to mathematical ſtudies, he remained in comparative obſcurity; and his uncommon talents as a man of genius

genius and wit were known only to a ſmall circle of friends. As ſoon, however, as he embarked in the great deſign of publiſhing an Encyclopædia, he attracted a large ſhare of public attention; and, with ſome obloquy, on account of the freedom of ſeveral articles of the work, obtained, as he proceeded, high reputation for the knowledge and talents which, in common with his colleagues, he diſcovered. His company was now ſought by the great, and his literary merit was thought ſufficient to entitle him to royal patronage. Through the intereſt of the miniſter, count D'Argenſon, the king, in 1756, granted him a penſion of twelve hundred livres. In 1762, the Empreſs of Ruſſia invited him to undertake the education of her ſon, the grand-duke, accompanying the invitation with an offer of a ſalary of an hundred thouſand livres, and other conſiderable privileges. This flattering propoſal, D'Alembert's attachment to his friends and his country, and his fondneſs for literary leiſure, would not permit him to accept. Though it was urged a ſecond time, by a letter written by the Empreſs's own hand, he ſtill preſiſted in his refuſal. The next year another, perhaps more enticing though leſs lucrative, offer was made him by the king of Pruſſia. That illuſtrious philoſopher, and patron of philoſophers, invited D'Alembert to meet him at Weſel after the peace of 1763, and, on the firſt interview, affectionately embraced him. The king's firſt queſtion was, "Do the mathematics furniſh any method of calculating political probabilities?" To which the geometrician replied, "That he was not acquainted with any method of this kind, but that if any ſuch exiſted, it could be of no uſe to a hero, who could conquer againſt all probability." The king, who would, doubtleſs, be gratified by ſuch a compliment, and who was already well acquainted with the talents of D'Alembert, made him an offer of preſidency of the academy of Berlin, vacant by the death of Maupertuis. The ferment which had lately been excited in France by ſome articles in the Encyclopædia, eſpecially that of *Geneva*, and the odium which had particularly fallen upon himſelf, might have furniſhed a good reaſon for ſeeking a peaceful aſylum in the court of a philoſophical prince. D'Alembert, however, choſe to decline the offer; and the king, far from diſpleaſed at the refuſal, maintained a friendly correſpondence with him as long as he lived. The letters which paſſed between them will be found in "The Poſthumous Works of the king of Pruſſia." This correſpondence, together with that which he carried on with Voltaire and other philoſophers; the conſtant intercourſe which he had with illuſtrious perſons at home, and with learned foreigners; his influence in the academy of ſciences, and, above all, in the French accademy, of which, after the death of Duclos 1772, he was ſecretary, were circumſtances which concurred to give importance to the character which D'Alembert, during the latter part of his life, ſuſtained in the republic of letters. And, though his enemies called him the *Mazarin* of literature, candour requires us to believe, that he owed his influence leſs to artful management and ſupple addreſs, than to the eſteem which his talents and virtues inſpired. His averſion to ſuperſtition and prieſt-craft carried him, it is true, into the region of infidelity; and his enmity to the Jeſuits and the clergy produced in him a degree of hoſtility againſt the religion of his country, which ſometimes obliged even the philoſopher Frederic to read him a leſſon of moderation. The eccentricity of his opinions did not, however, deſtroy the virtues of his heart. A love of truth, and a zeal for the progreſs of ſcience and freedom, formed the baſis of his character; ſtrict probity, a noble diſintereſtedneſs, and an habitual deſire of obliging, were its diſtinguiſhed features. Many young people, who diſcovered talents for ſcience and learning, found in him a patron and guide. To worthy men, even in adverſity and perſecution, he was a firm and courageous friend. To thoſe who had ſhown him kindneſs, he never ceaſed to be grateful. Gratitude induced him to dedicate two of his works to two miniſters, when they were in diſgrace, the count D'Argenſon, to whom he had owed his penſion, and the marquis D'Argenſon, who had given him many proofs of reſpect and eſteem. When, in early life, madam de Tencin, informed of his ſingular talents, came to him, and fondly carefſing him, diſcovered

ered to him the ſecret of his birth, "What do you tell me, madam" he cried out: "Ah, you are but a ſtepmother; it is the glazier's wife who is my mother!" Through life he retained for his nurſe the affectionate ſenſibility of a grateful ſon. He remained in her houſe near thirty years, and did not leave it, till, 1765, after a long illneſs, his phyſician repreſented to him the neceſſity of removing to a more airy lodging. His health being recruited, he continued to occupy his honourable ſtation among philoſophers till the 29th of October 1783, when, in the ſixty-ſixth year of his age, he expired; leaving behind him the reputation of amiable virtues, and eminent talents. Perhaps no character has ever appeared, which has more completely exemplified the union of ſtrong mathematical genius with an elegant taſte for polite literature. *Eloge de J. le Rond d' Alembert par M. Condorcet, dans l'Hiſtoire de l'Acad. France*, 1783. *Nouv. Dict. Hiſt. Supplem. to Hutton's Mathem. Dict.*—E.'

Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, by C. S. Sonnini, &c. &c.; tranſlated from the French by Henry Hunter, D. D.

Continued from page 835.

THE third volume of this work contains an account of the author's journey into Upper Egypt; or that part which lies ſouth of Cairo. Repeated miſcarriages obliged him finally to abandon the idea of penetrating beyond the limits of Upper Egypt; and in fact he went no higher than Luxor, the ſeat of antient Thebes; once the magnificent capital of Egypt, and ſituated according to D'Anville's map, in 26 30 north latitude. This peregrination the author completed in ſomewhat more than five months, having left Boulac (the port of Cairo) on the 21ſt of March 1778.

In this tour, M. Sonnini aſſumed and travelled in the character of a phyſician; which, though it expoſed him to many inconveniences, and to ſome danger, yet procured for him ſeveral opportunities of knowledge which he would not otherwiſe have enjoyed.

Among the diſorders of which he here gives an account, the moſt diſguſting and horrible is a ſpecies of leproſy; which our countryman Hillary, in his tract on the epidemical diſeaſes of Barbadoes, terms *Leproſy of the Joints*. The patient who ſolicited the aid of M. Sonnini had loſt, by this diſeaſe, the greater part of the joints of his fingers and toes, which had ſucceſſively dropt off. It is called by the Arabs *madsjourdam*, and commences by a ſwelling and redneſs of the fingers and the ears.—The leproſy here is not conſidered as either loathſome or contagious. The leper of whom the author ſpeaks, continued to eat with his family, and, according to their cuſtom, to dip his fingers, already dropping off with the diſeaſe, into the diſh of which they all ate. Though not leſs than ſixty years of age, he enjoyed a good appetite, ſlept well, and ſeemed to feel no inconvenience from the diſorder, except an itching in the articulation of his fingers and toes. None of his family had caught the diſeaſe; and his wife continued to ſleep with him as uſual.

The great body of the Cophts in this country are of the Greek Church; and, ignorant as their Monks are, the laymen comprize within themſelves all the literature of Upper Egypt. Moſt of them can read and write; and, in conſequence of theſe rare acquiſitions, they become the intendants, regiſters, and ſecretaries, of the men of wealth.—ſituations of which they fully avail themſelves. Their manner of taking their repaſts differs in nothing from that of the Turks and Arabs; of which M. Sonnini gives the following deſcription:

"They are ſeated, with their legs croſſed, around a table with one foot, in form of a large circular tea-board, on which diſhes are placed, without either table-cloth, plates, knives or forks. They make, with the right hand, the circle of the diſhes, from whence they take ſucceſſively, and according to their taſte, little morſels with their fingers. The left hand, deſtined for ablutions, is unclean, and, muſt not touch proviſions. They ſometimes transfer what they have taken from one diſh to another, to form a mixture of it; of this they make a large ball, which they convey to a widely extended mouth. The poultry and the boiled meats are divided into pieces, and torn with the hands

and nails. The roaſt meats are ſerved up in little pieces, cut before they are put to the ſpit, and no where can you eat better roaſt meat than in the countries of Turkey. The table does not afford an opportunity for converſation. They only ſeat themſelves to eat very rapidly; they make quick diſpatch, and ſwallow with precipitation. They are not men whom the pleaſure of ſociety calls together; they are brutes whom want and voraciouſneſs collect around their paſtures. The greaſe diſtils from each ſide of their mouths. The ſtomach ſends forth frequent fumes, which they lengthen out and render as noiſy as they can. He whoſe hunger is ſooneſt appeaſed riſes from table firſt. It is not regarded as a want of politeneſs to remain alone at the board, if your appetite is not perfectly ſatisfied."

Intoxicating liquors are forbidden to the diſciples of Mohammed: but, in Upper Egypt, the Arabs and Egyptians ſubſtitute for thoſe liquors ſeveral preparations, by which they obtain, inſtead of violent intoxication, a kind of pleaſing reverie which inſpires gaiety, and occupies the imagination with an agreeable deluſion. This kind of annihilation of the thinking faculty, according to M. Sonnini, has no reſemblance to the drunkenneſs occaſioned by our wines and ſtrong liquors, but is a feeling for which no European language has a name. By the Arabs, this delicious ſtupor is called *Keif*.

Courtezans abound in Egypt: but, inſtead of thoſe diſintereſted, beauteous, and ſeducing beings whom former travellers have taught us to expect in this country of love, they are repreſented by the preſent writer as the moſt loathſome, impure, impudent, and avaricious of women: creatures, in a word, in compariſon with whom the loweſt order of the ſame claſs in Europe would by an European be regarded as divinities.

M. Sonnini is minute and attentive to the animal productions of this country; and we find much of the third volume occupied by topics of this kind, ſome of which are intereſting even to readers who are not naturaliſts. Of its inſects, he ſays:

'The inſects there, which are the the flies. Both man and beaſt are cruelly tormented by them. No idea can be formed of their obſtinate rapacity, when they with to fix on ſome part of the body. It is in vain to drive them away, they return again the ſelf ſame moment, and their perſeverance wearies out the moſt patient ſpirit. They like to faſten themſelves in preference on the corners of the eye, and on the edge of the eye-lid, tender parts towards which a gentle moiſture attracts them. I have obſerved a ſpecies, or rather a variety of flies, ſtreaked with gray and drak brown, and reſembling the common fly, only much ſmaller. Their habits alſo differ, for I did not perceive that they were often on the wing, or that they incommoded men or animals. They were almoſt conſtantly found in houſes, faſtened on the walls, and, from preference, on the whiteſt.

'The flies are not the only troubleſome inſects; the houſes are filled with a vaſt quantity of bugs, whoſe bites are cruelly painful. Notwithſtanding this the Egyptians, covered over with theſe vile inſects, ſleep profoundly; their ſkins, hard and thick, renders them impenetrable, whilſt the European undergoes, in the ſame places, a real puniſhment. The bite of theſe bugs always occaſioned on my body hard ſwellings, and as big as the end of my finger.

'An inſect ſtill more diſguſting annoyed us during the whole of our journey, through Upper Egypt. The inhabitants, even of the better order, and who appear the moſt cleanly, are covered with lice, in ſpite of their frequent bathing and religious ablutions; the bey, the *kaiſchef*, are not free from them. When they feel themſelves bitten by any of theſe inſects, they ſeize it carefully, and put it, without hurting it, on the ſame ſopha where they are ſitting, from whence it is not long of [in] crawling on ſome other perſon. Whatever precaution I could take to avoid being tormented by them, I was obliged to ſubmit to it, and to endure the envenomed bitings of theſe inſects, which are of an uncommon ſize and voracity in Egypt. When my companions were employed in clearing themſelves from them, they uſed jocularly to call their ſearch *hunting a la Turque*.'

After

After having returned to Alexandria, M. Sonnini concludes his work by informing us that he departed thence for Greece and Turkey: the details of which expedition we are taught to expect at a future period.

The Experienced Farmer, an entire new Work, in which the whole Syſtem of Agriculture, Huſbandry, and Breeding of Cattle, is explained and copiouſly enlarged upon; and the beſt methods, with the moſt recent improvements, pointed out. By Richard Parkinſon, of Doncaſter. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Robinſons.

AS a uſeful extract from this work we ſhall tranſcribe the Section

On Pigeons.

"Dovecots ought to be built ſo ſpacious, that the pigeons may with eaſe and comfort to themſelves fly about within them, and that, if any thing alarm them from without, they may readily eſcape. If a dovecot be high, and narrow within, pigeons will diſlike going to the bottom: I have known when young pigeons have tumbled out of the neſt, that the old ones have ſuffered them to ſtarve rather than go to the bottom to feed them. I had a ſummer-houſe in my garden, which I converted into a dovecot. For ſake of ornament, I raiſed my new building to a conſiderable height: but the inſide was narrow like a well. The young pigeons frequently fell on the floor, ſome of which were found dead with empty craws, others picked up alive, but half ſtarved. No pigeons ever laid their eggs in the bottom holes; nor would even the young rooſt in them. We had a great number in the winter, becauſe we fed them well; but many flew away in ſummer. I put in a floor half way down, and they proſpered much better.

"A man, who beſides exerciſing other trades went about the country to kill rats, and had been employed in that capacity by an uncle of mine, was engaged by a neighbouring gentleman to repair ſome neſts in his dovecot—the largeſt and beſt I ever ſaw. Having a ſtrong inclination to build a cot and raiſe a ſtock of pigeons, and hearing of this famous dovecot, I went with the rat-catcher to view it. The neſts were all made of ſmall wickers, like baſket-work. Though this was quite a new method to me, I could very eaſily conceive it was the beſt I had ſeen: the pigeon in a wild ſtate makes her neſt ſo; and he will not err much who obſerves and takes nature for his guide. However, as this method was expenſive, I varied from the plan, and made mine of clay and laths. I did not incloſe it in front, becauſe I then thought (what I am now convinced is true) that pigeons like to be more at liberty than the common form of dovecots allows. The one I examined was in the middle of a town, and in the centre of a moſt populous ſtreet. I was amazed the number of people almoſt continually near the place did not diſturb the pigeons ſo much as to make them forſake their habitation, eſpecially as a blackſmith's ſhop was ſituated cloſe to it: but my guide, the rat-catcher, told me that pigeons delighted in noiſe and company, and that, if they left the cot, he knew how to fetch them back again. I thought he dealt a little too much in the wonderful. He adviſed me not to ſtock the dovecot until the latter end of the year with the harveſt flight; as pigeons bred at that time are the ſtouteſt for the winter, I followed his advice, and in the proper ſeaſon colonized it with four dozen of pigeons, and kept them incloſed for ſome time; but when they were let out, they all flew away in a few days. One or two would ſometimes come about the cot, but I deſpaired of ever making them fond enough of their habitation to breed in it.

"Recollecting however the aſſertion of the pigeon-conjuror, I ſent for him, and he paid me a viſit next day. He began by filling a large pot with water, and immediately threw ſome ingredients which he took out of his pocket into the water: ſet the whole on the fire to boil, and kept ſtirring the ingredients about until they were entirely diſſolved. He went with this mixture into the dovecot, and took great pains to lay it on with a painter's bruſh both in and outſide the holes. He then got a ladder, and in the ſame manner waſhed over the loover, or aperture where the pigeons enter, with the ſame mixture. In ſpite of the aſſurances given me by the operator that my pigeons would return, and perhaps

haps with additional company, I did not place implicit faith in his predictions, and could not avoid expreſſing ſome doubts of the attracting power of his noſtrum. But he conſented to ſtop until the pigeons were to make their appearance, upon the terms, "No pigeons, no pay." About eleven o'clock a ſingle pigeon came, and about three the ſame day all my emigrants returned. My flock ſoon grew numerous, and they never after forſook the cot. A moſt extraordinary good one it ſoon proved, with the aſſiſtance of a colony of ſtrangers, who had been enticed to take up their reſidence by the faſcinating accommodations provided by my rat-catcher.

'I could not prevail upon the man to diſcloſe his ſecret; or I would here give the recipe for the public good: but the principal ingredients were undoubtedly ſalt and aſa-fœtida. However, as he had convinced me of his ſkill in pigeons, I liſtened carefully to his inſtructions concerning the management of them. Whatever repairs are neceſſary, either to the building or to the nefts, ſhould be done before noon: for, if you diſturb the pigeons in the afternoon, they will not reſt contentedly the whole night; and the greateſt part perhaps will not enter the cot until the next day, but will ſit mooping on the ground; and if in breeding-time, either a number of eggs may be ſpoiled, or young ones ſtarved to death. He likewiſe cautioned me againſt letting the firſt flight fly to increaſe my flock, but to take every one of them; as theſe will come in what is called *feeding-time*, that is, between ſeed-time and harveſt. It is then that pigeons are the ſcarceſt; and many of the young would pine to death through weakneſs during that ſeaſon.

'It is neceſſary to give food to pigeons during the ſtarting-ſeaſon only: but it ſhould be done by three or four o'clock in the morning; for they riſe early. If you ſerve them much later, they will keep hovering about home, and be prevented taking their neceſſary exerciſe. If you feed them the year round, they will not breed near ſo well as if forced to ſeek their own food; for they pick up in the fields what is pleaſant and healthy for them, and from the beginning of harveſt to the end of ſeed-time they find plenty.

'At the latter end of every flight be careful to deſtroy all thoſe eggs which were not laid in proper time. The proper time for the Spring-flight is in April and May. After the harveſt flight, cold begins to come on, which injures the old pigeon much if ſhe ſits late; and the young will be good for nothing, if hatched. A warm ſituation ſuits pigeons the beſt.

'It is very neceſſary to pay attention to cleanlineſs in the management of a dovecot. Before breeding-time the holes ought to be carefully examined and cleaned: for if any of the young die in the holes in ſummer, maggots are ſoon bred in them: they become putrid, and emit a diſagreeable and unwholeſome ſtench, very injurious to the inhabitants of the dovecot. Pigeons are very tenacious of their nefts, as appears from the conduct of the wood-pigeon, which will breed for years in the ſame tree, and the mother forſakes hers with regret: but, unable to endure the filth and ſtench of her dead offſpring, ſhe is obliged to quit the eggs ſhe has laid for a ſecond brood; and the prime of the ſeaſon is loſt. Every ſummer, immediately after the firſt flight, the nefts ſhould be all cleaned out, and the dung totally taken away, as it breeds filth. But remember to do this buſineſs early in the morning. You ought likewiſe to deſtroy the remaining eggs, and make a perfect clean habitation for the harveſt flight.

'Pigeons are profitable and uſeful. Although they be ſuppoſed to do miſchief in ſeed-time and harveſt, I contend that the farmer is a gainer by them, and repeat my aſſertion that they are both profitable and uſeful. Their dung makes an extraordinary good manure, which, if worked up into a compoſt, inſtead of being uſed in the preſent ſlovenly way, would be of ſtill more value. Pigeons, like many other animals, are more productive from the breeds being croſſed. I put a few tame pigeons into a dovecot; and the conſequence was, that I had a more early and a more numerous batch of young than any of my neighbours.

'In general a dovecot has treble the number of holes that are uſed. I took off the roof from one of mine, and put a new one on without doing any in-

injury to my pigeons: but I did not ſuffer the workmen to work after twelve o'clock at noon. It was a very low cot, but wide, with few holes in it. I have had ſix dozen of pigeons in a morning from it. Many of them breed on the floor: an old table ſtood in the middle of the cot, and ſeveral had made neſts and bred upon it; which makes me think it not neceſſary to incloſe the holes in the manner ſo generally practiſed.

'It is erroneous to ſuppoſe ſtarlings deſtroy pigeons' eggs, or injure a dovecot; they only take up room. Pigeons have a great antipathy to owls, which find their way ſometimes into dovecots; and there is no getting rid of ſo troubleſome a gueſt but by deſtroying him. Rats are terrible enemies to pigeons, and will ſoon deſtroy a whole dovecot. Cats, weaſels, and ſquirrels will do the ſame. It will be neceſſary, therefore, to examine the dovecot once a week at leaſt very minutely.

SUPPLEMENT to the Account of the ARMISTICE concluded between His Royal Highneſs the Duke of YORK and General BRUNE, publiſhed in the Gazette of the 26th of October.

Continued from p. 849.

Head-quarters, Schagen Brug, Oct. 15.

GENERAL,

THE late hour at which your letter reached me laſt night, prevented my ſending ſooner to Alkmaar Major-General Knox, the officer alluded to in my letter of yeſterday's date. He is entirely in my confidence, and is fully authoriſed to treat and conclude with you on the ſubject reſpecting which he has received my inſtructions,

(Signed) FREDERICK Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army.

To Gen. Brune, Commander in Chief, &c.

Head-quarters, Schagen Brug, Oct. 15.

By virtue of the authority, and in obedience to the order of His Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army, Major-General Knox will have the honour of communicating with General Brune, Commander in Chief of the French and Batavian army, and of ſtating to him,

That in conſequence of the difficulties ariſing from the very unfavourable and unuſual ſtate of the weather at this ſeaſon, we have judged it expedient to re-occupy the poſition of the Zuyp.

That in this ſituation, with cantonments amply adequate to the amount of our forces, having an uninterrupted and certain means of keeping up our communication with England, and maſters as we are of the Helder, the Texel, the Zuyder Zee, and the ocean, it depends upon us either to await the period when a favourable change of weather and of circumſtances may enable us to renew offenſive operations, or to withdraw our army by degrees, and without riſk, from this country, retaining poſſeſſion of ſuch detached points as might be judged moſt favourable for annoying the enemy, or for ſecuring real advantages to ourſelves.

In the event of our recurring to this laſt-mentioned meaſure, it will become our duty to neglect no means which can contribute to the preſervation of the brave troops entruſted to our care, and for this purpoſe (however diſtreſſing, however ruinous to the inhabitants, and to the country, the alternative may be) we ſhall be compelled to avail ourſelves of thoſe dreadful expedients which it is in our power to adopt. Having perfectly at our diſpoſal the Sea Dykes, both towards the ocean and the Zuyder Zee, as well as the interior dykes, we ſhould in that caſe be reduced to the terrible neceſſity of inundating the whole country of North Holland, and of adding to this calamity every deſtructive evil which muſt neceſſarily reſult from an attempt to force or interrupt our retreat. We ſhould, under ſuch circumſtances, alſo be conſtrained to make uſe of the ample means we poſſeſs, of rendering the navigation of the Zuyder Zee henceforth impracticable, by obſtructing the Mars Diep, and deſtroying the New Diep; works upon which ſo many years labour and ſuch immenſe ſums have been expended.

Our

Our ſyſtem of carrying on war having on all occaſions been governed by the moſt liberal principles, neceſſity and the ſtrongeſt ſenſe of duty could alone induce us to adopt a ſyſtem repugnant to the ſentiments which have ever directed the conduct of the Engliſh nation.

From theſe conſiderations, and from our perſuaſion that General Brune and the Dutch people muſt be actuated by ſimilar motives, and equally deſirous to prevent an uſeleſs effuſion of blood by the amicable arrangement of a point which is perhaps the object of both parties, and from our anxiety, in caſe of a different reſult, to ſtand juſtified to the whole univerſe, from whatever deſtruction may in conſequence devolve upon this country; we propoſe and offer to General Brune, and to the Batavian Republic, that the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops ſhall evacuate, before the end of the month of November next, all the coaſts, the iſlands, and the interior navigation of Holland, without committing any act detrimental to the great ſources of its navigation, or laying the country under any inundation.

For this purpoſe, we propoſe that a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities ſhall take place until the period above ſpecified.

That during this interval we ſhall remain in full poſſeſſion of all the points, and of the whole extent of country we occupy at this moment, and that the line of the reſpective advanced poſts ſhall alſo be that of ſeparation between the two armies, and that this line ſhall not, under any pretence, be paſſed by the troops of either, even in the event of our chuſing to retire from any part of our preſent poſition, or of our quitting it altogether.

That during the above-mentioned interval no interference ſhall be allowed, nor any objections be ſtarted with reſpect to the conduct of either of the parties within the limits of their reſpective poſſeſſions; and that all the rights of war (every act of hoſtility excepted) ſhall continue mutually in force.

That we will grant to the perſons and property of the inhabitants of the country occupied by us, every protection conſiſtent with diſcipline, in the circumſtances under which we are placed, all the advantages which the conduct generally obſerved by Britiſh troops entitles them to expect on ſuch an occaſion.

If theſe propoſals accord with the wiſhes, and are conformable to the intentions of General Brune, there can be no difficulty whatever in carrying them into execution in three days from the date hereof.

By order of his Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief.

(Signed) H. TAYLOR, Secretary.

THE FRENCH AND BATAVIAN ARMIES.

Equality. *Liberty.*

Head-quarters at Alkmaar, the 15th of October, 1799, the 8th year of the French Republic.

Brune, General in Chief, to the Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army.

GENERAL,

Major-General Knox, who was inſtructed to confer with me on your part, upon the ſubject of a note which he has delivered, ſigned by your ſecretary, will communicate my anſwer contained in an explanatory note.

(Signed) CITIZEN BRUNE,
General in Chief of the combined French and Batavian army.

Head quarters at Alkmaar, the 15th of October 1799, the 8th year of the French Republic.

The Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the Engliſh army, propoſes that a ceſſation of hoſtilities ſhall take place, in conſequence of the approach of the inclement ſeaſon. He propoſes to withdraw from the Batavian territory, between the preſent period and the end of November next, the whole army under his command; and conſents that no damage ſhall be committed, no ſluices opened, or dykes broken up, on condition of his retreat not being moleſted by the French and Batavian army.

Theſe motives would not have been brought forward by the Duke of York, if he had conſidered himſelf poſſeſſed of means ſufficient for advancing into the country; for in that caſe, he would have had the facility of extending his quarters, of procuring ſubſiſtence, and, in ſhort, of placing himſelf beyond the reach of the inconveniences ariſing

from the unfavourable ſeaſon. We ought, conſequently, to look to advantage in an arrangement, proportionate to the inſufficiency of the forces under his command.

The terms propoſed by the Duke of York contain nothing but what would be the neceſſary reſult of a ceſſation of hoſtilities. It can ſcarcely be ſuppoſed that the Duke of York will cauſe the dykes to be deſtroyed, the country to be inundated, and the villages to be burnt, for the mere purpoſe of committing ſuch acts of violence, as ſuch conduct would be contrary to the laws of war, and muſt draw upon him the reprobation of all Europe, and of his own nation. It appears therefore evident, that the Duke of York would confine himſelf to ſuch meaſures as might be uſeful to his own army, or detrimental to ours: But we look upon ſuch accidents as inſeparable from a ſtate of war. No object of advantage to us appears, therefore, to reſult from the propoſals which have been made.

Since, however, the ſufferings of humanity come under the conſideration of the Duke of York, General Brune is ready to meet this honourable feeling, and, in doing ſo, declares that the following ſtipulations, on which he offers to conſent to a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities, are ſo obviouſly juſt that he cannot depart from them:

I. The Batavian fleet, which was ſurrendered to Admiral Mitchell by Admiral Story, ſhall be reſtored to the Batavian Republic with its ſtores and crews. In caſe the Duke of York ſhall not be veſted with ſufficient powers to comply with this article, his Royal Highneſs ſhall engage to obtain from his Court an equivalent compenſation.

II. Fifteen thouſand priſoners of war, French and Batavians, detained in England, ſhall be unconditionally releaſed and ſent home. The mode of ſelection, and the proportion for each country, to be ſettled between the Governments of the two Republics. The Batavian Admiral De Winter ſhall be conſidered as exchanged.—This article ſhall in no degree prejudice or interfere with the cartel of exchange at preſent eſtabliſhed.

III. The batteries and fort of the Helder ſhall be reſtored in the condition in which they were found at the period of the invaſion of the Engliſh and Ruſſian army. An officer of artillery ſhall be ſent to the Helder, by General Brune, to ſee that this article be complied with.

IV. The army under the command of the Duke of York ſhall within forty-eight hours evacuate the poſition of the Zuyp; its advanced poſts ſhall be withdrawn to the heights of Callants-Oog. The French and Batavian army ſhall preſerve the poſitions it occupies at preſent, taking up however its advanced poſts at Petten, Crabbendam, Shagen-Brug, and Colhorn. It ſhall have merely a vidette at the height of Callants-Oog.

V. The troops compoſing the Engliſh and Ruſſian army ſhall be embarked ſucceſſively, and as ſpeedily as poſſible. All the Britiſh ſhipping ſhall quit the Texel, and all the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops be withdrawn from the ſeas, coaſts, and iſlands of the Batavian Republic, before the 20th of November next, and ſhall not damage the great ſources of navigation, or occaſion any inundation in the country.

VI. All ſhips of war or other veſſels, having on board reinforcements for the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army, ſhall put to ſea as ſoon as poſſible, without landing the ſame.

VII. To guarantee the execution of theſe articles, hoſtages ſhall be given by the Duke of York, to be ſelected amongſt the officers of rank in his army.

By order of General Brune, Commander in Chief of the combined French and Batavian army.

(Signed) VEVRY, Secretary.

Head-quarters, Shagen Brug, Oct. 17.

GENERAL,

I ſend back Major-General Knox with my anſwers to the explanatory note which he has delivered to me in your name. He is fully authoriſed to conclude on my part upon every point which relates to the ſubject of his miſſion.

(Signed) FREDERIC Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army.

To Gen. Brune, Commander in Chief, &c. &c.

Head-quarters at Shagen Brug, Oct. 17.

His Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, Commander in Chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army, propoſed to General Brune, Commander in Chief of the French and Batavian army, an arrangement equally to the advantage of both parties, originating in his deſire to prevent the farther effuſion of blood, and to preſerve this country from the terrible effects of an inundation, as alſo from the deſtruction of the beſt of its ports, involving the total ruin of the principal channels of its interior navigation and commerce.

In anſwer to which General Brune obſerves, that he cannot imagine his Royal Highneſs will recur to meaſures not leſs revolting to his humanity than repugnant to the character of the Britiſh nation, and to the general feeling of all Europe.

Deveſtation or deſtruction is certainly incompatible with the character, and with the uniform conduct of the Engliſh nation; and as little do either accord with the diſpoſition of his Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief:—But there are duties peremptorily preſcribed by the nature of particular ſituations, the odium of which muſt fall, not on thoſe who execute, but on ſuch as render the meaſures neceſſary, by rejecting the conditions of a juſt and honourable agreement.

Deeply impreſſed with what is due to his country on the one hand, and to the claims of humanity on the other; perſuaded, likewiſe, that General Brune is equally guided by theſe ſentiments, his Royal Highneſs has taken his propoſals into conſideration, and conſents to abide by the agreement as it ſtands in the anſwers annexed to the different articles.

Major-General Knox, who is charged therewith, is authoriſed to ſign and conclude this agreement, as well as to arrange any points of detail which may ariſe out of it.

It being the duty of every officer commanding his Britannic Majeſty's troops to make an exact report of whatever relates to his command, his Royal highneſs the Duke of York will of courſe lay before the Britiſh Government every communication which has taken place between his Royal Highneſs and General Brune.

ARTICLES *propoſed in the explanatory note from General Brune.*

Art. I. The Batavian fleet, which was ſurrendered to Admiral Mitchell by Admiral Story, ſhall be reſtored to the Batavian Republic with its ſtores and crews. In caſe the Duke of York ſhall not be veſted with ſufficient power to comply with this article, his Royal Highneſs ſhall engage to obtain from his Court an equivalent compenſation.

Anſ.—His Royal Highneſs will on no account treat upon this article, the execution of which, it muſt be evident to both parties, is impoſſible.

Art. II. Fifteen thouſand priſoners of war, French and Batavians, detained in England, ſhall be unconditionally releaſed and ſent home. The mode of ſelection, and the proportion for each country, to be ſettled between the Governments of the two republics. The Batavian Admiral de Winter ſhall be conſidered as exchanged.—This article ſhall in no degree prejudice or interfere with the cartel of exchange at preſent eſtabliſhed.

Anſ.—This demand appears to reſt upon a ſuppoſed loſs the combined army muſt ſuſtain ſhould its embarkation be reſolved upon. It is by no means admitted that ſuch would be the reſult; but as in the event of the army's carrying on the campaign during the winter, the loſs of a certain number of men muſt naturally be expected; his Royal Highneſs, influenced by this conſideration, agrees to promiſe, in the name of the Britiſh Government, that five thouſand French and Batavian priſoners, the proportion of each to be regulated according to the terms of the article, ſhall be unconditionally releaſed and ſent home. Nothing farther in this article can be agreed to.

Art. III.—The batteries and fort of the Helder ſhall be reſtored in the condition in which they were found at the period of the invaſion of the Engliſh and Ruſſian army. An officer of artillery ſhall be ſent to the Helder by General Brune to ſee that this article is complied with.

Anſ.—The fort and batteries of the

Helder

Helder will be left, generally conſidered, in an improved ſtate.

None of the Dutch artillery ſhall be carried away.

Art. IV. The army under the command of the Duke of York ſhall within forty-eight hours evacuate the poſition of the Zuyp. Its advanced poſts ſhall be withdrawn to the height of Callants-Oog. The French and Batavian army ſhall preſerve the poſitions it occupies at preſent, taking up, however, its advanced poſt at Petten, Crabendam, Schagen Brug, and Colhorn. It ſhall have merely a vidette at the height of Callants-Oog.

Anſ.—On no account will it be conſented that the army ſhall be withdrawn from the poſition of the Zuyp, until every preparation requiſite to render its embarkation eaſy and complete can be arranged at the Helder. It muſt be evident, that it cannot be deſirable that any delay ſhould take place in this reſpect. No addition ſhall be made to the works at the Zuyp, and perſons properly authoriſed ſhall be admitted from time to time, to aſcertain and report upon this point for the ſatisfaction of General Brune; but no armed detachment will be permitted to approach, or to take poſt nearer than they already are to our poſition.

It muſt be further underſtood, that on his part, General Brune will not allow any approaches or offenſive preparations to be carried on, and that the French and Batavian army ſhall remain in the line of advanced poſts which it occupies at preſent, which ſhall alſo be the line of ſeparation between the two armies reſpectively.

Art. V. The troops compoſing the Engliſh and Ruſſian army ſhall be embarked ſucceſſively and as ſpeedily as poſſible. All the Britiſh ſhipping ſhall quit the Texel, and all the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops be withdrawn from the ſeas, coaſts, and iſlands of the Batavian Republic before the 20th November next, and ſhall not damage the great ſources of Navigation, or occaſion any inundation in the country.

Anſ.—The embarkation of the Engliſh and Ruſſian troops will take place with all poſſible expedition; and at this ſeaſon of the year any unneceſſary delay will naturally be avoided as much as poſſible: But, to prevent any difficulty or future diſcuſſion upon this point, it is propoſed, that the period of the ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities ſhall be limited to the end of the month of November next, in order to ſecure ſufficient time for the complete evacuation of the country, which, however, ſhall be effected ſooner, if practicable.

Art. VI. All ſhips of war, or other veſſels, having on board reinforcements for the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army, ſhall put to ſea again as ſoon as poſſible.

Anſ.—The ſhips of war, or other veſſels, immediately expected with reinforcements for the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army, or which may hereafter be ſent, ſhall not land their troops, but ſhall put to ſea again as ſoon as poſſible.

Art. VII. To guarantee the execution of theſe articles, hoſtages ſhall be given by the Duke of York, to be ſelected among the officers of rank in his army.

Anſ. Hoſtages ſhall be *reciprocally* given, to be ſelected among the officers of rank of the two armies, to guarantee the execution of this agreement.

By Order of his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, commander in Chief of the combined Engliſh and Ruſſian army.
(Signed) H. Taylor, Secretary.

Sir, *Alkmaar, Oct. 17.*

I have ſeen General Brune, and have talked over with him fully all the articles on which I have received his Royal Highneſs's inſtructions. I have found the greateſt diſpoſition on the part of General Brune to enter fairly into the ſubject.

In reſpect to the eſſential article of the fleet, General Brune has already received a letter from the Dutch Directory, to make the delivery of it a *ſine qua non*; and I much doubt whether there is any chance of his being brought to give way on this point, at leaſt without ſome aſſurance that his Royal Highneſs would forward the demand to his Court.

In reſpect to the other very eſſential article of the priſoners, after much converſation, I brought the General to lower his demand to eight thouſand men, beyond which he cannot recede. Every other point can be amicably ſettled.

I beg his Royal Highneſs's orders on theſe points, and I hope to receive them by noon to-morrow.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. KNOX.

To the Hon. Col. Hope, Adjutant-General, &c.

Head-quarters, Schagen Brug, Oct. 18.

SIR,

His Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief, in his inſtructions to you of yeſterday's date, having declared that every paper or propoſal from General Brune, and conſequently *that* relative to the whole Dutch fleet, will of courſe be regulary tranſmitted to England, can give no other anſwer than what you are already impowered to make, viz.

"His Royal Highneſs will, on no account treat upon this article; the execution of which, it muſt be evident to both parties, is impoſſible."

If General Brune expects any thing farther to paſs on that ſubject, the ſooner the negociation is put an end to the better.

In regard to the number of priſoners, if *every other point* is *clearly* and *immediately decided upon*, his Royal Highneſs may be induced to relax; *if not*, it is unneceſſary to enter further into the ſubject; and he directs to finiſh the negociation.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) ALEX. HOPE,
Deputy-Adjutant-General.

The Hon. Major-General Knox.

Alkmaar Oct. 18, three P. M.

SIR,

I have received your letter, and have the pleaſure to inform you, that every thing is ſettled to his Royal Highneſs's ſatisfaction: in conſequence of which General Brune has given immediate orders to all his poſts that hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe, and that no further work of any kind ſhall be carried on; he requeſts his Royal Highneſs will be pleaſed to give ſimilar orders without loſs of time, as a report has juſt been made that ſome houſes has been ſet on fire on the road leading to Hernhuyſen.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) J. KNOX.

To the Hon. Col. Hope, Adjutant-General, &c.

P. S. General Brune has ſent off to Amſterdam to direct that nothing hoſtile ſhall be attempted on the part of the flotilla there fitted out; and he begs that ſimilar notice may be ſent to Admiral Mitchell.

See p. 783.

EAST INDIES.

PROCLAMATION *by the Commiſſioners for the affairs of Myſore, on the 24th June, at Seringapatam.*

Proclamation by Lieut. Gen. George Harris, the Hon. Henry Wellesly, Lieut. Col. Wm Kirkpatrick, and Lieut. Col. Barry Cloſe.

WHEREAS the deceaſed Tippoo Sultan, unprovoked by any act of aggreſſion on the part of the allies, entered into an offenſive and defenſive alliance with the French, and admitted a French force into his army, for the purpoſe of commencing war againſt the Honourable Engliſh Eaſt India Company Bahadur, and its allies, the Nizam ud Dowlah Aſaph Jah Bahadur, and the Paiſhwa Row Pundit Purdhan Bahadur; and the ſaid Tippoo Sultan having attempted to evade the juſt demands of ſatisfaction and ſecurity made by the Hon. Engliſh Company Bahadur, and its allies, for their defence and protection againſt the joint deſigns of the ſaid Sultan and of the French—

The allied armies of the Hon. Engliſh Company Bahadur, and of his Highneſs Nizam ud Dowlah Aſaph Jah Bahadur, proceeded to hoſtilities in vindication of their rights, and for the preſervation of their reſpective dominions from the perils of foreign invaſion, and from the ravages of a cruel and relentleſs enemy.

And whereas it has pleaſed Almighty God to proſper the juſt cauſe of the ſaid allies with a continued courſe of victory and ſucceſs, and, finally, to crown their arms by the reduction of the capital of Myſore, the fall of Tippoo Sultan, the utter extinction of his power, and the unconditional ſubmiſſion of his people.

And whereas the ſaid allies being diſpoſed to exerciſe the rights of conqueſt with the ſame moderation and forbearance which they have obſerved from the commencement to the concluſion of the late ſucceſsful war, have re-

reſolved to uſe the power which it has Pleaſed Almighty God to place in their hands, for the purpoſes of obtaining reaſonable compenſation for the expences of the war, and of eſtabliſhing permanent ſecurity and tranquility for themſelves and their ſubjects, as well as for all the powers contiguous to their reſpective dominions.

Wherefore the ſaid allies have reſolved, that of the territory poſſeſſed by the late Tippoo Sultan, the diſtricts ſpecified in the ſchedule A, hereunto annexed, ſhall be ſubjected to the authority, and for ever incorporated with the dominions of the Engliſh Company Bahadur; and that the diſtricts in the ſchedule B, hereunto annexed, ſhall be ſubjected to the authority, and for ever incorporated with the dominions of the Nabob Nizamud Dowlah Aſaph Jah Bahadur; and that a ſeparate government ſhall be eſtabliſhed in Myſore, under the Mhuſſoor Maharajah Kiſhenrai Wodeiar, a deſcendant of the ancient Ranas of Myſore, who ſhall poſſeſs the diſtricts ſpecified in ſchedule C, hereunto annexed, and which ſhall form the ſeparate government of Myſore. And farther, that the diſtricts in ſchedule D, ſhall remain for the preſent under the authority of the ſaid Maharajah Kiſhenrai Wodeiar.

And whereas the arrangements and ſtipulations neceſſary for eſtabliſhing the aforeſaid diviſion and allotment of the territory poſſeſſed by the late Tippoo Sultan, between the ſaid allies, have been finally concluded—

We, the above-named Commiſſioners, do hereby promulgate the aforeſaid diviſion and allotment of the territories poſſeſſed by the late Tippoo Sultan; and do farther hereby require from all inhabitants and perſons belonging to, or reſiding in the aforeſaid territories, that they pay full and implicit obedience to the government to which they become reſpectively ſubject by the foregoing arrangements and ſtipulations.

The following are the names of the diſtricts and places contained in ſchedule A, which fall to be annexed to the poſſeſſions of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company.

Schedule A.—The following diſtricts from Nuggur to Bidnoor: Kedial (Mangalore); Bekul and Nelliſeram, Karkul, Barkoo, Khooſhallpoor, Butkul, Ganopa, Hunaware, (Onore); Mirjaun, Ancolah, Panjmahal, and Shedaſhevgur, or Soonda, Payenghaht, Biljwy.

Coimbatoor, viz—Coimbatoor, Perindorah, Danaigencotah, Vigeamungal, (Avarcourchy), Cheeor, Errode, Chinjerry, Carroor, Darapoor, Chucherchery, Quoodgully, Cattimungalum, Caveriporam, Audioor.

Wynaad.—From Abemednuggar (Chuckleer), from Talooks, belonging to Seringapatam; Ponganoor, Sattihul, Alambaddy and Kodahully; Officor, Deccanicotah, and Kuttenghery; Vencataghery Cotah, Aukuſhery, and Shaologhery; Bangloor, Tallanally and Talwaddy; half the Tallook of Hunbanhully.

The forteſs of Seringapatam, and the iſland on which is ſituated, including the ſmall track of land or iſland, lying to the weſtward of the main iſland, and bounded on the weſt by a Nullah, called the Myſore Nullah, which falls into the Cavery near Chemgul Ghaut.

NEW FRENCH CONSTITUTION.

The following is a brief ſketch of the new conſtitution preſented to the French republic on the 13th of December.

FRANCE is to be diviſed into diſtricts, communal and departmental. The citizens of the former are to chuſe a tenth of their number, which tenth is to chuſe the public functionaries of the diſtrict; and from a tenth of this number are to be ſelected the functionaries of the department. The citizens of the departmental liſts are alſo to nominate a tenth of their number, which tenth is to comprehend the citizens of each department eligible to legiſlative and miniſterial functions.

The conſervative ſenate is to conſiſt of eighty members, ſixty to be elected immediately by Sieyes and Ducos, and Cambaceres and Lebrun, the preſent conſuls: and the other twenty to be progreſſively added in the courſe of the enſuing ten years. The members of the ſenate are to hold their offices for life; they fill up a vacancy in their own body by chuſing one out of

of three canditates, prefented by the chief conful (Buonaparte) the tribunate, and the legiſlative body. The Senate alſo, are to chooſe the legiſlators, tribunes, conſuls, &c. from the departmental liſts; and to have the power of annulling or confirming all reſolutions ſubmitted to it as unconſtitutional.

The tribune is to conſiſt of one hundred members, a fifth of whom are to go out yearly. This aſſembly is to diſcuſs projects of laws ſubmitted to it by the government alone.

The legiſlative body is to conſiſt of three hundred members, a fifth of whom is alſo to go out annually. It is to decree the laws by private ballot.—The ſalary of each ſenator is to be about 1000l. that of a tribune 625l. and that of a legiſlator 416l per annum.

The powers of the chief conſul are to be of the moſt extenſive nature; the ſecond and third are to have deliberative, yet not deciſive voices. There is to be a conſul of ſtate to aſſiſt the government.

Neither the conſuls, ſenators, tribunes, legiſlators, or counſellors of ſtate, bear any reſponſibility; this weight is to fall on the miniſters alone.

Buonaparte is appointed chief conſul for ten years poſſeſſed of full reeligibility, with a ſalary of about 22,833l. per annum; Cambaceres and Lebrun, the ſecond and third conſuls, with a ſalary of about 6,300l. each, and Sieyes Ducos, are members of the ſenate.

The criminal laws bear a reſemblance to thoſe of England.

This conſtitution is to be immediately ſent to the people for their acceptance or rejection, which in the ſpace of three days after it hath been received in each commune, is to be regiſtered in a book for the purpoſe.

This conſtitution is a compound of ariſtocracy and democracy; much of the former, little of the latter. It is alſo not without an infuſion of monarchy. It is democratic, inſomuch as it is not founded in property; as the body of perſons eligble to the great national offices are drawn by *a proceſs of filtration*, from the great maſs of the people; it is alſo democratic, inſomuch as it explodes the idea of arbitrary arreſts and impriſonment, and eſtabliſhes the trial by jury. It is ariſtocratic, becauſe the people have no direct influence; becauſe they do not immediately appoint their repreſentatives; becauſe the government has the initiation of laws; becauſe the deciſion upon thoſe laws is to be in ſecret; and becauſe there is to be a body compoſed of men elected for life. It is monarchial, becauſe the chief power of the ſtate is, in fact, entruſted to one man, who is not reſponſible. The *Conſervative Senate* is a new idea, and if it does not, which is moſt probable, degenerate into a ſcene of intrigue, of party and of corruption, it may be of ſervice. It will appear that this conſtitution in the maſs reſembles that of no other country, but that in ſome one point it reſembles almoſt every other conſtitution. The irremoveable quality of the Senators and Judges, is a bad copy of that of our Peers and our Judges; and the employments of the three Counſellors of State to defend the Government in the Legiſlative Body, ſhews a deſire of attaining the ſame advantage which is derived from the preſence of our Miniſters in Parliament. The only point in which the French appear to us to have gained any thing, is in the adminiſtration of juſtice; but the benefit in this reſpect is but half attained; nor do the French, upon the whole, ſeem to us to have gained as much in civil liberty as they have loſt in political liberty. After having placed the four conſtituted authorities, the Government, the Senate, the Tribunate, and the Legiſlative Body, in the balance, it will be manifeſt, that notwithſtanding the counterpoiſe which it has been pretended has been created, the firſt weighs down all the reſt. A Chief Conſul, and ſuch a Conſul as Buonaparte, freed from all reſponſibility, with a proviſional right of making war and peace, appointing to all places in the adminiſtrations and in the army, diſpoſing of the public money, and empowered to propoſe laws at his own pleaſure, is a monarch, and a powerful monarch, under another name, and whom it would be abſurd to compare to the Preſident of the United States. Never had any of the Kings of Poland, elected only for life, ſo much power, either *de jure* or *de facto*, as this conſtitution gives to Buonaparte. It has been made by him, and for

for him, it has been ſketched out with the point of the ſword, will be defended, and may be ſubverted, by the ſame inſtrument.

It is in fact a deſpotic monarchy, whatever it may be called, and the Legiſlative Body will have no greater functions than the old Parliament of France to regiſter the edicts of the Sovereign. It is curious, however, to obſerve, that France ſeem deſtined to be governed by a Louis; and Louis Buonaparte, now upon the throne, may be called the XIXth Louis of France.

LONDON.

Captures for December.

Le Guerier privateer, 14 guns, by the Courier.

El Orely Spaniſh ſchooner, four guns, by the Nelly.

The Four Brothers privateer, four guns, by the Kent cutter.

Le Barras privateer, 14 guns, by the Driver.

Fantaiſie lugger, 14 guns, by the Jalouſe.

Le Vrai Decide privateer, 14 guns, by the Racoon.

L'Intrepide lugger, 16 guns, by the Racoon.

Le Succeſs privateer, ſix guns, by the Atalante.

L'Heureuſe privateer, 14 guns, and L'Heureux Speculateur, 14 guns, by the Speedwell and Valiant.

General arrangement of the Britiſh Forces. Dec. 31. 1799.

	Cav.	Inf.	F.Cav.	F.Inf.	Mil.	P.Cav.	bat.	Com.
England	26	53	14	4	73	6	176	26
Scotland	0	4	4	1	12	0	21	4
Ireland	6	5	13	34	*7	0	64	6
Jerſey, &c.	0	2	0	7	0	0	9	25
Portugal	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	0
Gib. &c.	0	13	0	0	0	0	13	0
N. America	1	7	0	0	0	0	7	0
Weſt-Indies	2	31	0	0	0	0	33	0
C. of G. Hope	1	3	0	0	0	0	4	0
Eaſt Indies	4	18†	0	0	0	0	22	0
On paſſage	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0
Total	41	139	31	46	92	6	354	61

* And 37 regiments of native militia.
† The Company's troops excluſive.

State of the Britiſh Navy in commiſſion, on Dec. 31. 1799.

Ships of line,	144
of 50 guns,	21
Frigates,	230
Sloops,	262
Total	658

excluſive of armed veſſels, gun-boats, &c. which are chiefly employed in protecting the coaſting trade.

Return of the Captures of war-ſhips to December 1. 1799.

Of the line, including Dutch ſhips of 74 and 56 guns, -	83
Frigates, of 28 to 44 guns, -	111
Ships — 20 to 26 -	59
Sloops, — 14 to 18 -	83
Cutters, gun-veſſels, 12 guns, and under, - -	81
Total, men of war,	417
Privateers of all nations, -	701
Grand Total,	1118

A General Bill of all the Chriſtenings and Burials in London, from Dec. 10. 1798, *to Dec.* 11. 1799.

Chriſtened,		Buried,	
Males,	10087	Males,	9046
Females,	8883	Females,	9088
In all,	18,970	In all,	18,134

Whereof have died,

Under 2 years	5211	50 and 60	1758
Betw. 2 and 5	1790	60 and 70	1565
5 and 10	644	70 and 80	1125
10 and 20	573	80 and 90	456
20 and 30	1299	90 & a 100	63
30 and 40	1724	100 & 1	2
40 and 50	1924		

Decreaſed in the Burials this year, 21.

EDINBURGH.

Dec. 26. A moſt daring outrage was committed at Roſs Lodge, in Dumbartonſhire. From the accounts given, it appears—That two men, ſtout made, and of middle ſtature, having their faces blackened, entered by a back-door of Lieut.-Col. Colquhoun's kitchen, and the noiſe they made, in endeavouring to conceal themſelves in a ſmall pantry, having been heard by the female ſervants, one of them took a candle and looked into the pantry; on which

the ſaid two men darted out; and one of them inſtantly ſtruck the girl on the head with a bludgeon, and knocked her down; and the other women, having ſcreamed aloud, ran out of the kitchen: That Colonel Colquhoun and two gentlemen having been in a parlour, attended by his man ſervant, the latter left the room, and was going to the kitchen, when the two men met him in the paſſage, and one of them having ſeized him, the other knocked him down; and they thereupon entered the parlour, and, without uttering a word, violently aſſaulted the Colonel and his two friends with bludgeons; and having inflicted many ſevere wounds, two of the gentlemen were laid ſenſeleſs on the floor, and the third with difficulty eſcaped to alarm the neighbourhood: That the ſaid two men then broke open preſſes, &c. and rummaged the houſe, and before any aſſiſtance was procured, they made their eſcape by a back-window: —A reward of one hundred guineas has been offered for apprehending the offenders.

The Juſtices of the Peace, upon a petition from the journeymen ſhoemakers, ordered their wages to be raiſed as follows, viz.—Three halfpence on the ſhilling until the meal be at 1s. 8d. per peck, and a penny on the ſhilling till it comes to 1s. 3d. per peck; when the augmentation is to ceaſe.

A general Mortality Bill in Edinburgh, from Jan. 1799, to Jan. 1800.

Buried.

Males	996
Females	1052
Total——2048.	

Whereof have died

Under 2 years old	586
Between 2 & 5	244
5 & 10	88
10 & 20	64
20 & 30	70
30 & 40	142
40 & 50	142
50 & 60	212
60 & 70	196
70 & 80	124
80 & 90	64
90 & 100	16

The bill of mortality, for the city of Glaſgow and ſuburbs, for the year 1799, amounts to 2499. Of theſe have been interred in the High, Blackfriars, and North Weſt church yards, 1279 —whereof have died,

Under	2 years of age	492
Between	2 & 5	160
	5 & 10	38
	10 & 20	53
	20 & 30	91
	30 & 40	90
	40 & 50	75
	50 & 60	61
	60 & 70	95
	70 & 80	83
	80 & 90	30
	90 & 100	5
		1279

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

At Kingſton, Jamaica, upon the 12th September laſt, James Inglis, Eſq; merchant to Miſs Mary Jane Brock of that place.

Rev. William Findlay, miniſter of Eaglesham, to Miſs Elizabeth M'Gibbon, of Stirling.

Nov. 2. The Rev William Fraſer, miniſter of Gigha, to Miſs Anna Campbell.

— Mr Stuart Cheyne, bookſeller, to Miſs Mary Stevens.

4. At Edinburgh, Capt. Thomas Robertſon, Bengal engineers; to Miſs Hamilton, daughter of William Hamilton, Eſq; Hill-ſtreet.

8. At New Hailes, James Fergüſſon, Eſq; to Miſs Jean Dalrymple, daughter of the late Sir David Dalrymple, Bart. of Hailes, one of the Lords of Seſſion.

— Mr Alexander Howden, merchant in Leith, to Miſs Caſſels, daughter of Andrew Caſſels, one of the magiſtrates of Leith.

12. Duncan Campbell, Eſq; of Orchard, to Miſs Helen Campbell, daughter of Alexander Campbell, Eſq; Comptroller of the Cuſtoms at Port Glaſgow.

— At Perth, the Rev. Robert Thomas, miniſter of Abdie, to Miſs Bennet of that place.

14. James Carſtairs Bruce, Eſq; of Tillicoultry, to the Hon. Miſs Elizabeth Cicilia Rollo, daughter of the late Lord Rollo.

15. Mr Neil Sutherland, ſurgeon, to Miſs Magdalen Gordon, daughter of the deceaſed Alexander Gordon of Aberdour.

19. At Edinburgh, Sir William Cunningham,

ningham, Bart. of Caprington, to Mrs Græme of St Andrew's Square.

21. At Leith, the Rev. John Watſon, miniſter of the Relief congregation at Dunſe, to Miſs Marion Gladſtones, daughter of Mr Thomas Gladſtones, merchant in Leith.

23. At Glaſgow, Mr James Elder, writer, to Miſs Janet Barr, daughter of Mr John Barr, merchant in Port Glaſgow.

26. Alexander Boſwell, Eſq; of Auchinleck, to Miſs G. Cuming, daughter of the late Thomas Cuming, Eſq; banker in Edinburgh.

Nov. 27. Lieutenant-Colonel John Rattray of Craighall, in the ſervice of the Hon. Eaſt India Company.

Dec. 6. Mr John Boyd, merchant in Leith, to Miſs Jean Robb, only daughter of the late Captain Robb, of the 80th regiment of foot.

— At Edinburgh, the Rev. Charles Cunningham, miniſter of Lundie and Fowlis, to Miſs Maxwell Finnan, daughter of the late Rev. James Finnan, miniſter of Irongray.

— Mr John Marſhall, manufacturer, Auchtermuchty, to Miſs C. Robertſon, daughter of the deceaſed William Hamilton, Eſq; of Middlefield.

9. At Barrachnie, Mr Thomas Law of Meinhill, to Miſs Nancy Hamilton, daughter of William Hamilton, Eſq; of Barrachnie.

10. At Edinburgh, James Walker, Eſq. wine-merchant, to Mrs Major Napier, daughter of the Rev. Robert Cunninghame of Edgownie and Bowerhouſe.

15. At the houſe of James Grant, Eſq; Corrington's Herts, James Downing, Eſq; of the 73d regiment, to Miſs Macdonell, daughter of the deceaſed Duncan Macdonell, Eſq; of Glengary.

17. In London, James Fraſer, Eſq; younger of Belladrum, to Miſs Fraſer, eldeſt daughter of John Fraſer, Eſq. of Auchnagairn.

23. At St George's, Hanover-ſquare, Lieut.-Col. Henry Clinton, of the firſt regiment of foot-guards, ſecond ſon of the late Gen. Sir Henry Clinton, to the Hon. Miſs Sarah Cheſter, ſecond daughter of the Rt Hon. Lord Lleyes.

At Glaſgow, the Rev. John Duncan, miniſter of Ardroſſan, to Miſs Helen Hart of Glaſgow.

— At Dumfries, Mr William Gourlie, Superviſor of Exciſe there, to Miſs daughter of Robert Jackſon, Eſq; of Nith.

At Ayr, Dr William [illegible] Profeſſor of Philoſophy in [illegible] Glaſgow, to [illegible] daughter of David Scott, Eſq; banker in Ayr.

---At Glaſgow, the Rev. John Duncan miniſter of Ardroſſan, to Miſs Helen Hart of Glaſgow.

BIRTHS.

Oct. 22. Mrs Dundas of Arniſton, a ſon.

— Mrs Walter Scott, a daughter.

— Mrs Baird of Newbyth, a ſon.

25. Mrs Kinloch of Kinloch, a daughter.

— Mrs Sitwell, a ſon.

27. Counteſs of Home, a ſon.

29. Mrs Marjoribanks of Eccles, a daughter.

Nov. 3. At Aden, Mrs Ruſſel, a ſon.

7. Mrs Dalzell of Lingo, a ſon.

11. Hon. Mrs Gray, a daughter.

Nov. 14. Lady Inverury, a ſon.

21. Mrs Hamilton of Fairholm, a ſon.

— Mrs Veitch, of Elliock, a ſon.

25. Lady Cathcart, a daughter.

28. Mrs Swinton of Swinton, a ſon.

Dec. 1. Mrs Veitch at Hawthornbank, a ſon.

— Lady Mackenzie of Garloch, a ſon.

16. Lady Charlotte Hope, a daughter.

18. Mrs Carnegie Fullerton, a ſon.

29. At New Poſſo, Lady Naſmyth, a daughter.

— Mrs Copland Dunbar, a daughter.

DEATHS.

In the Eaſt Indies, Lieutenant Archibald M'Credie, of the Bengal Sepoys, ſon of Wm M'Credie of Perſetoun, Ayrſhire.

On the march to Seringapatam, Sir James Colquhoun, Bart. of Tullichewen, Lieutenant in the 19th regiment of foot.

On the 19th June, near Poonamalee, on on his way to Madras, for the recovery of his health, Major Donald M'Donald, Commandant of the 2d bat. 12th regiment of native infantry.

Oct. 3. Rev. Mr William Donaldſon, miniſter of Parton.

4. At Dumbarton, Mr John M'Aulay, writer.

6. At Edinburgh, Captain Robert Seton, late in the ſervice of the Eaſt India Company.

— At Birmingham, William Withering, M. D. F. R. S. of London, Edinburgh, &c.

13. At London, Dr George Wilſon of Stuttencleugh, late phyſician in Peterſburgh, Virginia.

— John Auchinleck, Eſq; of Woodcockdale.

15. At Forge, Captain James Scott, late of the Eaſt India Company's marine, [illegible]

— Captain John Carſtae, late of the Dundalkane ſencibles.

15. Lieutenant-Colonel Sir George Dunbar of Mochrum, Bart.

16. James Skelton of Orwell, Esq.

17. At Glasgow, the Rev. George Lawrie, minister of Loudoun.

19. At Logie, Alexander Gordon, M. D. surgeon in the royal navy.

Oct. 8. At Egmond-op-Zee, in consequence of a wound, Major Lindsay Crawford Campbell, eldest son of the late John Campbell, Esq; of Newfield.

9. Mr Walter Montgomery, surgeon of the Latine frigate, unfortunately lost with her.

16. At Newton Stewart, Thomas Roberts, aged above 100 years.

17. At the manse of Dunoon, the Rev. John Melville, minister of that parish.

21. At the Helder, Colonel Augustus Maitland, commanding the 3d battalion of the first guards, in consequence of the wounds he received in the action of the 6th. instant.

22. On his passage from Holland, of his wounds, Lieutenant Simpson, of the Royal artillery.

25. Near Haddington, Mr John Barclay, son of the late Dr George Barclay of Middleton.

26. At Edinburgh, Mr Alexander Campbell, Writer to the Signet.

— George Augustus Haldane, Esq; of Gleneagles.

— At Folkstone, the Right Hon. the Earl of Kelly, one of the sixteen Peers for Scotland.

27. At Baldovie, John Farquharson, Esq.

27. At Woolwich, Mr Robert Ewing, merchant in Glasgow.

30. At the manse of Kinghorn, the Rev. John Uther.

Nov. 2. At Exmouth, George Lockhart of Newhall, Esq.

— At Woodend, Alexander Stewart, Esq; of Achnacon.

4. At Gloucester, the Rev. Josiah Tucker, D. D. and Dean of that cathedral.

8. At Dunfermline, Mr Andrew Adie writer, and one of the magistrates of that burgh.

11. At Lower, Patrick Carnegie of Lower, Esq.

12. At Gullen, William Cochran, Esq; of Gullfield.

13. At Edinburgh, the Rev. Dr Thomas Robertson, minister of the gospel at Dalmeny.

— At Beverley, in Yorkshire, the *wonderworking* philosopher Dr Rotherham.

17. At Edinburgh, Mr Thomas Davidson, eldest son of the Rev. Dr Davidson of Dalkeith.

19. At Dumbarton, Mr Richard Freebairn, writer.

21. At Edinburgh, Andrew Plummer, Esq; of Middlestead.

22. At Arbroath, Thomas Stevenson, M. D.

26. At Craighall, Lieutenant Colonel John Rattray of Craighall, in the service of the Hon. East India Company.

27. In Strabane, in Ireland, John Campbell, Esq; of Achalader, Lieutenant-Colonel of the Breadalbane fencibles.

28. James Beatson of Mawhill.

31. In Ireland, Capt. Alexander Farquharson, of the Aberdeenshire fencible infantry.

Dec. 3. Sir David Ogilvy of Barras, Bart.

— At Plymouth Dock, John Campbell, Esq; Purser of his Majesty's ship Canopus, and late Secretary to Admiral Lord Nelson on board the Vanguard, in the glorious action of the 1st of August 1798, in which Mr Campbell was wounded.

6. At London, Gen. George Morrison, Colonel of the 4th (or King's own) regiment of foot, and the oldest Staff Officer in his Majesty's Service, having been appointed Quarter-Master-General in November 1761.

At Edinburgh, Dr Joseph Black, one of the physicians to his Majesty for Scotland, Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh, and a Member of the different respectable Medical and Literary Societies in Europe. The useful science of Chemistry has received many valuable improvements and elucidations from the genius and industry of the learned Dr Black, which will transmit his name with honour to the latest posterity. His remains were interred in the Greyfriars church yard. The funeral procession proceeded from his house, in Nicholson-street, in the following order: —Twelve baton men and ushers—two men carrying white scarfs on poles—the coffin on mens shoulders, the friends of the deceased holding the ribbons—the mace bearer of the University, carrying the mace—the Principal and Professors of the university, in their gowns—and above 400 of the Students of the different classes, in mourning.

— At Rothesay, island of Bute, the Rev. David Hogg.

7. At Carnwath, Mr James Meikle, surgeon.

8. The Hon. Lady Forbes of Craigievar, at Fintry House.

12. William Thomas Wilbart, Esq; of Fox Hall.

14. Alexander Gordon, Esq; of Campbel-

14. At Peterhead, where he had gone for the recovery of his health, the Rev. John Allan, Epiſcopal clergyman in Edinburgh.

17. At Dundee, Mr James Davidſon merchant there.

19. At Dumfries, Mr Robert Thomſon, late Convener of the Trades of that place, in the 85th year of his age;—and, at ſame time, Mrs Frew, relict of Mr Robert Frew, joiner. What is very remarkable, they were both born in the ſame year, died on the ſame day in the ſame houſe, and were buried together.

24. In the 89th year of his age, Sir James Napier, Knt. Fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies, and formerly Inſpector General of his Majeſty's Hoſpitals in North America.

PREFERMENTS.

The Reverend John Rogers to be aſſiſtant and ſucceſſor to the Reverend William M'Leiſh, miniſter of Collace, in the preſbytery and county of Perth.

The Reverend Hugh Roſs to be preacher of the Church or Chapel at Cromarty, vacant by the death of the Reverend William Roſs.

Duke of Hamilton to be Lord Lieutenant of Lanarkſhire.

The Earl of Mornington to be Marquis Wellesley, in the kingdom of Ireland.

Thomas Troubridge, Eſq; Captain in the navy, the dignity of a Baronet of Great Britain.

George Napier, Eſq; to be Commiſſariot of the Commiſſary of Caithneſs.

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N. B. The diſtinguiſhing character of this year is its coldneſs, the mean temperature being a little ſhort of 49 degrees. There was little appearance of ſpring at the end of April, and the following month was the coldeſt May for, at leaſt, thirteen years paſt. From the 8th of July to the 16th of November was a rainy period, except the firſt ten days in September, which were fine and ſeaſonable.

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